SCHOCH/KRON

# THE LITTLE YANKEE

J. BIELEFELD'S VERLAG
Ettlingen i. B. und Leipzig

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# THE LITTLE YANKEE

A HANDBOOK OF
IDIOMATIC AMERICAN ENGLISH
TREATING OF THE
DAILY LIFE, CUSTOMS AND INSTITUTIONS
OF THE UNITED STATES

WITH THE VOCABULARY AND PHRASEOLOGY
OF THE SPOKEN LANGUAGE
INCORPORATED IN THE TEXT

BY
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and
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FOURTH EDITION

ETTLINGEN (BADEN) UND LEIPZIG
J. BIELEFELDS VERLAG
1930

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# PREFACE.

The object of the *Little Yankee* is to help foreigners in learning American English. The need of such a book has long made itself felt in those parts of the world where foreigners come more in contact with Americans than with Englishmen, and where closer relations are maintained with the United States than with other English-speaking countries. American English anyway is spoken by twice as many people as all the other dialects of English combined, and its claims to recognition as a standard of language are growing with the continual increase in population, wealth and power of the United States. Two-thirds of the English-speaking population of the world are now Americans.

This book is intended especially for use in the colleges of the Latin-American republics, also in the large number of colleges thruout the world founded and maintained by American citizens resident there or by American missionary societies, also in the schools of the American colonial possessions and in the night-schools and other institutions in the United States that offer practical instruction in the English language for immigrants.

In Europe the *Little Yankee* will appeal especially to those who have been in America, or who intend to come over, and to those who are interested in a general way in studying the differences between American English and British English or in extending their knowledge of American life and ways. Its strictly idiomatic character and fluent conversational style recommend it for use as a textbook in colleges, as well as for private study. The Americanisms it contains should prove of interest besides to all students of the English language in foreign countries, regardless of what regional dialect of English they choose to imitate.

As a college textbook the *Little Yankee* is intended to be used either as a reading book or as material for conversation in the upper classes. It is above all a conversation-manual, and, to get the full benefit from the use of it, the phrases and expressions it contains should be learned thoroly, so as to furnish material and models for constructing other similar phrases when they are needed.

I hope no one will look for literary style in such a book as this. I have studiously avoided bookish words and expressions that might seem out of place in fluent conversation. On the other hand I have just as carefully excluded vulgarisms. I have aimed to make the vocabulary and phraseology just the kind of language that should be used by the class of people who are to study the book in foreign countries when they engage in actual conversation with the corresponding class of people in the United States.

The *Little Yankee* is an adaptation of Dr. Kron's well known *Little Londoner*. American daily life and national customs are described in it in the same general way as British affairs have been treated in Dr. Kron's book. A considerable portion of the text has been furnished by Dr. Kron, with such changes on my part as were needed to make it conform to American linguistic usage and American facts. Differences between the customs and institutions of the two countries have made it necessary to rewrite a number of chapters and to add several new ones made up of entirely original matter.

Dr. Kron is too well known in modern language circles to need any introduction. As for myself, I may legitimately be expected to give readers of this book some information that will enable them to judge of my fitness for undertaking the work of compiling it. I am of American birth and parentage, and American English is my mother-tongue. After graduating from college, I spent four years studying modern philology and general linguistics in various American and European universities and took my doctor's degree at Cornell University. I have been employed in the United States as a teacher of Romanic languages and

have had experience in teaching my own language to foreign students as Professor of French and English in the National Institute, Tegucigalpa, Honduras. I have used the *Little Londoner* as a textbook myself, and that circumstance has been of some help to me in compiling this adaptation of Dr. Kron's book.

Some help to correct pronunciation has been provided in doubtful cases by printing a dot just after letters that represent full stressed vowels. Secondary stress is not marked. English pronunciation depends largely on where the stress falls. It should be borne in mind that nearly all unstressed syllables contain the neutral vowel (the first vowel in the words *above, enough, imagine, o'clock, upon*), especially in typical American pronunciation.

Where several forms of the same word are in use, I have preferred the newer forms of such words as *thru, catalog* and *program* and the distinctively American spelling in other cases.

Words and parts of words that could be omitted are printed in brackets [ ] when the omission would cause a change in the meaning. Explanatory matter and equivalent expressions are enclosed in parentheses ( ), as well as matter that could be omitted without any change in the meaning.

The kindness of various friends who furnished data for improving this edition is gratefully acknowledged, as well as the assistance furnished by reviewers. Further criticisms and suggestions are invited.

Alfred D. Schoch.

CHICAGO, April, 1930.

# CONTENTS


| Chapter | | Page |
|---|---|---|
| I. | Social Amenities | 5 |
| II. | Shops and Stores | 10 |
| III. | Food and Meals | 19 |
| IV. | Private Houses and Hotels | 25 |
| V. | Eating and Drinking Places | 36 |
| VI. | Toilet | 42 |
| VII. | The Human Body | 49 |
| VIII. | Physical Defects and Sickness | 53 |
| IX. | The Family | 60 |
| X. | Education | 68 |
| XI. | Earning a Living | 80 |
| XII. | Elementary Arithmetic | 88 |
| XIII. | Money. Weights. Measures | 91 |
| XIV. | Time | 96 |
| XV. | Seasons and Weather | 101 |
| XVI. | In the Country | 107 |
| XVII. | Recreation | 113 |
| XVIII. | Red Letter Days | 122 |
| XIX. | Mail and Express | 129 |
| XX. | Telegraph and Telephone | 138 |
| XXI. | Traveling by Land, Sea and Air | 143 |
| XXII. | Transportation in Cities | 159 |
| XXIII. | The Country and the People | 163 |
| XXIV. | American Cities | 172 |
| XXV. | The Government | 185 |
| XXVI. | American English | 190 |
| | Index | 197 |

## I. Social Amenities.

Mr. Fo·reigner, I see you are on the do·orstep[1] of the United States of America ringing the bell. How do you do?[2] Glad to see you. Come in. Let me take your hat and o·vercoat.[3] Be seated, please.[4]

Did you have a ple·asant jo·urney? How was it on the o·cean? Did you have good weather and a smooth passage? You are looking fine; you don't look a day older than the last time I saw you years ago. What are you doing these times? How's the world using you? How are you getting alo·ng? I suppo·se your folks are all well at home? How's your father? What's the news?

We hope to see you often while you are here. We would like to have you come over and spend the evening with us after supper now and then.

---

[1] Phrases at the door: "Does Mr. Blank live here?" — "Is this where Mr. Blank lives?" — "Can I see him?" — "Is he in?" — "Is he at home?" — "When will he be back?" — "When do you expe·ct him back?" — "When do you think I could find him here?"

[2] Contra·cted fami·liarly to "How'd do?" — "Howdy do?" — "Howdy?" Other saluta·tions: "Good morning" and "Good evening." "Good afterno·on" is rather prete·ntious. "Hello·" is info·rmal and fami·liar.

[3] Americans don't carry a cane.

[4] "Will you take a seat?" — "Take a seat." — "Take a chair." — "Sit down."

You can call us up on the te·lephone[1] to find out if we are going to be at home and not o·therwise enga·ged. You might give us your te·lephone-number, so that we can make a note of it. You can get our number out of the dire·ctory any time you need it.

We have next Su·nday afterno·on ava·ilable, and we would like you to have dinner with us[2] about half past one, and after dinner we can go for a drive or stay home and just talk or play cards and listen to the ra·dio.

Next Fri·day evening we are going to have a party, a little so·cial gathering of some of our best friends with games for enterta·inment and so·mething in the way of refre·shments. We would like to have you come to the party. You will have a chance to talk with the other guests and get fairly well acqua·inted. You may find it worth while to cu·ltivate the acqua·intance of some of

[1] The te·lephone is used ge·nerally in giving invita·tions and in arra·nging to call on people you know. It avo·ids the anno·yance of calling on people when they are not at home or are inte·nding to go so·mewhere themse·lves, or when they have si·ckness in the house or are not dispo·sed to rece·ive you. If you haven't much to say and only want to see so·mebody for a few mi·nutes, the whole affa·ir can be atte·nded to over the phone witho·ut need of going out at all. A good deal of our vi·siting in this country is done by te·lephone.

[2] In answer to an invita·tion: "Yes, I'd be glad to come; it's nice of you to invi·te me." — "Thank you for the invita·tion; I'll be glad to come." — "I'm sorry, but I have an enga·gement alre·ady for Su·nday afterno·on."

them. Of course we will introdu·ce you to our friends, give you an introdu·ction[1] to the other guests.

I wonder if there is a·nything you would like to know about our so·cial cu·stoms here. A fo·reigner of discre·tion and good manners in his own country like yourse·lf will have no trouble in falling in with our way of living and doing things.[2] We are not quite so fo·rmal as the people of some other countries. You will soon see for yourse·lf

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[1] A man is introdu·ced to a wo·man, to an older man or to an offi·cial or di·gnitary. "Miss America, may I prese·nt Mr. Fo·reigner?" — "Miss Colu·mbia, allow me to introdu·ce Mr. Guest." — "Prof. Hi·ghbrow, this is Mr. Tra·veler, a friend of ours from Ha·mburg." The simplest and most info·rmal introdu·ction merely gives the names of the two pe·rsons: "Miss America, Mr. Fo·reigner." The pe·rsons introdu·ced excha·nge ackno·wledgment of the introdu·ction by saying both at the same time with a bow and a smile, "How do you do, Miss Ameri·ca?" — "How do you do, Mr. Fo·reigner?" Men ge·nerally shake hands when introdu·ced, but if you are introdu·ced to a lady or impo·rtant pe·rsonage, do not offer your hand. If the other pe·rson who rece·ives the introdu·ction offers to shake hands, you will fall in with it and do your part. You can introdu·ce yourse·lf to ano·ther pe·rson with the fo·rmula: "Will you allo·w me to introdu·ce myse·lf? I am Mr. So-and-So." — "Allow me to introdu·ce myse·lf. My name is William Blank." It is best to avo·id introdu·cing yourse·lf as much as po·ssible. At a party or other place where you are thrown in with other people who are all part of the same crowd, you can begi·n talking to the other people witho·ut any such forma·lity.

[2] Pro·verb: "When in Rome do as the Ro·mans do."

that we do less bowing and ha·ndshaking and standing with our hats off.[1]

Did you bring any letters of introdu·ction[2] with you? They may be of some help to you in getting acqua·inted here. If it will help you in finding emplo·yment or esta·blishing bu·siness rela·tions, I will be glad to give you a letter of recommenda·tion. In any case you are free to refe·r a·nyone to me; you can give my name as re·ference.

You say you'll have to be going now? Well, I'm glad you called. I wish you didn't have to be in such a hurry; I wish you could stay longer. I hope you'll come aga·in soon. You ask me to give your rega·rds to my brother. Yes, thank you; I will. And when you write home to your folks, please reme·mber me kindly to all the fa·mily. Good-by.[3]

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[1] We don't take off our hats in a store or when passing the door of a church or when a fu·neral proce·ssion passes.

[2] Letters of introdu·ction are not so much used now in this country as they once were. Someti·mes a card with a few words written on it to introdu·ce you is given in place of a letter. If a letter of introdu·ction is addre·ssed to some pe·rson who has an office or place of bu·siness, the best way to handle it is to go there with it and prese·nt it in pe·rson witho·ut any preli·minaries. If it is addre·ssed to pri·vate pe·rsons who only have a home where they can rece·ive you, send it by mail and inclo·se your card with your addre·ss (or a·ddress) and pho·ne-number noted on it. You will pro·bably soon rece·ive an invita·tion to dinner at their house or an invita·tion to call on them.

[3] Other forms of le·ave-taking are: "Good day" (at any time of day, but not after dark) — "Good morning" — "Good

## Notes on Etiquette.

Any fa·vor or co·urtesy shown you should be ackno·wledged with "Thanks" or "Thank you." The pe·rson you thank makes no answer u·sually. If it is a fa·vor of some impo·rtance, more ela·borate thanks are in order: "Thank you ever so much." — "I don't know how to thank you eno·ugh for your ki·ndness." — "Much obli·ged." — "I'm ever so much obli·ged to you for your assi·stance." In such a case the pe·rson who has done the fa·vor answers, "Don't me·ntion it; you're quite we·lcome."

We say "Excu·se me" when we leave the room or overre·ach or step in front of ano·ther pe·rson, or when we start talking at the same time as so·meone else, or when we interru·pt, thinking the other pe·rson is thru talking.

When we bump aga·inst ano·ther pe·rson or step on his foot or commi·t some other a·wkward offe·nse aga·inst his di·gnity, we say: "I'm sorry." — "I beg your pa·rdon." — "Pa·rdon me." — "Excu·se me." U·sually there is no answer at all, if it is only a trifling matter. In more impo·rtant cases the other pe·rson answers: "It doesn't matter." — "That's all right." — "Don't me·ntion it."

When we don't understa·nd what has been said to us, we say "Beg pa·rdon?" or "I beg your pa·rdon?" with a rising infle·ction (in a que·stioning voice) or "Pa·rdon me; I didn't understa·nd." "What?" is info·rmal and fami·liar.

Fo·reigners should avo·id saying "Yes, sir" and "No, sir" or "Yes, ma'am" and "No, ma'am," unle·ss they are porters or waiters or other se·rvants. A simple "Yes" or "No" is nearly a·lways just as good and ge·nerally better.

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afterno·on" (prete·ntious) — "Good evening" — "Good night" (from abo·ut be·dtime o·n) — "By·-by·" (to babies and small children) — "So long; see you tomo·rrow" (fami·liar). Spa·nish-speaking people espe·cially should take no·tice that "Good day" and "Good night" and "Good-by·" are never used in English as saluta·tions, but only when people se·parate after they have been toge·ther.

## II. Shops and Stores.

City people often speak of going downto·wn to do their "shopping," and they like to look at the goods displa·yed in the "sho·p-windows" (or sho·w-windows or sto·re-windows). But they hardly ever refe·r to the places where me·rchandise is kept for sale as "shops." They call them "stores."

In Ame·rican English a shop is ge·nerally under-sto·od to be a wo·rkshop, a place where so·mething is made or repa·ired, or where some kind of work is done. So there are *barber-shops, shoe* (*repa·ir*) *shops, ha·rness-shops* (where saddles and ha·rness are made and repa·ired), *bla·cksmith-shops* (where i·ron is forged and ho·rseshoes are put o·n by bla·ck-smiths), *ca·rpenter-shops, ti·nshops, machi·ne-shops* (for repa·iring machi·nery) and *ra·ilroad-shops* (where ra·ilroad-e·ngines and cars out of repa·ir are sent to be put in order).

Still there are a few me·rcantile esta·blishments that are called shops, too. There are *bu·tcher-shops* (or *me·at-markets*) and *ca·ndy-shops* (or *confe·ction-ery-stores* or *ca·ndy-ki·tchens*) and *mi·llinery-shops* (or *mi·llinery-stores,* where ladies' hats and bo·nnets are trimmed and sold). In the case of all such places, tho, there is some kind of work done on the pre·mises besi·des the selling.

Some me·rchants do bu·siness on a large scale; *jobbers* (or *who·lesalers*) buy their goods of the fa·ctories and sell them to the *re·tailers* (or *re·tail sto·rekeepers*) in large (or consi·derable) qua·ntities.

The re·tailers sell them over the counter to the consu·mers in small qua·ntities.

Eatables are sold in the *ba·keries* (bread, cakes, cookies, pies), *delicate·ssen-stores*[1] (ready-cooked foods and table-de·licacies), *confe·ctionery-stores* (candy: cho·colate-creams, ca·ramels, ma·rshmallows, gu·m-drops), *me·at-markets* (fresh, salt and smoked meats; fresh fish; live and dressed poultry) and *gro·cery-stores* (flour, rice, su·gar, fresh and dried fruits and ve·getables, canned goods, butter, cheese, smoked meats, ce·real bre·akfast-foods, co·ffee, tea, spices, candy, ba·kery goods and, in fact, nearly e·verything ima·ginable that's used for food, with the exce·ption of fresh meats). Someti·mes a me·at-market is run in conne·ction with a gro·cery-(store); the esta·blishment is known as a *gro·cery and ma·rket* in that case. We have hardly any *pu·blic ma·rkets* where fresh fruits and ve·getables are sold in the open air or in spe·cial buildings for that pu·rpose.[2]

[1] Delicate·ssen-stores are nearly always ma·naged by Ge·rman-Ame·ricans or Scandina·vians, and they are found mostly in cities with a large Ge·rman popula·tion.

[2] Where such ma·rkets do· exi·st in the United States, they are li·mited to a few loca·lities and are mostly a survi·val from colo·nial times, due to the i·nfluence of some non-English e·lement in the popula·tion (Pennsylva·nia Dutch people and French and Spanish cre·oles). Of late, tho, e·fforts have been made to esta·blish ma·rkets where the farmers could sell their pro·duce dire·ct to the consu·mers in the cities and cut out (or eli·minate) the mi·ddlemen, but so far there are few of them, and they are not so picture·sque and i·nteresting as the pu·blic

Boots, shoes, slippers and rubbers are sold in the *shoe-stores*. *Ha·t-stores* carry a comple·te line of hats and caps for men and boys. Wo·men buy their hats in the *mi·llinery-stores* (or *mi·llinery-shops*), someti·mes ready to wear, or they may have them trimmed to order. The *men's fu·rnishing goods stores* sell u·nderwear, shirts, co·llars, cuffs, ties, gloves and suspe·nders. When a man wants a re·ady made (slang: ha·nd-me-down) suit of clothes, he goes to a *clo·thing-store* and tries o·n se·veral suits until he finds one that suits him and fits him. There may have to be some altera·tions made before it looks right on him. The clo·thing-stores also sell men's fu·rnishings, hats and shoes. In the *dry-goods stores* wo·men find re·ady-made ga·rments, dress mate·rials, trimmings and no·tions.

*Ha·rdware-stores* keep me·tal goods in stock: cu·tlery, tools for use in the arts and trades, wi·ndow-glass and the me·tal parts used in building houses. When a house is once built, the *fu·rniture-store* suppli·es the ca·rpets, tables, chairs, be·dsteads and e·verything needed to fu·rnish it

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ma·rkets American tra·velers find in fo·reign countries. People buy their fresh fruits and ve·getables at the gro·cery-stores or in spe·cial *fruit and ve·getable stores,* run u·sually by Greek, Ita·lian or Jewish i·mmigrants (or in the western states often by Japane·se propri·etors), who take to the re·tail distribu·tion of fruits and ve·getables as a bu·siness they can enga·ge in witho·ut much ca·pital (with little ca·pital). Fruit in small qua·ntities for eating right away can be bought at the *fru·it-stands* or from some stre·et-vender with a ba·sket or pu·sh-cart.

comple·te. Pi·ctures in pi·cture-frames, statue·ttes, bri·c-à-brac and kni·ckknacks for making the home ple·asant and attra·ctive are sold in the *a·rt-stores*.

People go to a "wa·tchmaker and je·weler" in his *je·welry-store* to buy watches, clocks, je·welry, si·lverware and o·ptical goods. He re·ally "makes" no watches by hand — American watches are made by machi·nery in large fa·ctories — but he do·es take charge of repa·iring and cleaning clocks and watches.

The *bo·okstores* keep a large asso·rtment of books in stock, and they order any book wanted from the pu·blishers on reque·st. They u·sually sell perio·dicals and sta·tionery as well as books. In the large cities there are also spe·cial *sta·tionery-stores*, where nothing is sold but writing mate·rials and o·ffice-suppli·es.

The *dru·gstores* (or *pha·rmacies*) sell drugs, che·micals, pa·tent me·dicines, to·ilet-prepara·tions, rubber goods, candy, sta·tionery and va·rious miscella·neous a·rticles, inclu·ding po·stage-stamps as an accommoda·tion to those that need them in small qua·ntities in an eme·rgency. They also fill do·ctors' prescri·ptions. They have a so·da-fo·untain, too, and serve i·ce-cream and i·ce-cold drinks and in some cases even light lunches.

The front of *five-and-ten-cent stores* is painted a bright red. People are free to go into them and exa·mine the goods displa·yed on the counters without being expe·cted to buy, unle·ss they happen

to find so·mething they want. They sell a great va·ri·ety of small a·rticles at either 5c or 10c api·ece.

In small towns and vi·llages there are *ge·neral-me·rchandise stores* that sell a little of e·verything: dry-goods, clothing, shoes, ha·rdware and gro·ceries. In very small places the propri·etor of the store acts as po·stmaster at the same time, and he has the po·stoffice insta·lled in one corner of his place of bu·siness.

The *depa·rtment-stores* are imme·nse esta·blishments in the large cities, with a ca·pital of mi·llions of do·llars inve·sted. They sell everything you can think of. Each kind of goods is found in its spe·cial depa·rtment. Each depa·rtment is pra·ctically a big store in itse·lf. The depa·rtment-stores offer a good many adva·ntages and conve·niences to buyers, and their competi·tion is ru·inous to the small stores. They do a mail-order bu·siness, too, and most of them pu·blish a ca·talog for the conve·nience of out-of-town cu·stomers.

The big Chicago *ma·il-order houses* do bu·siness by mail, mostly with people in far-away places.[1]

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[1] If you write to one of the ma·il-order houses and ask for a copy of their ca·talog, they will send you one free and postpa·id, a big book of over a thousand large pages with illustra·tions and descri·ptions of an imme·nse vari·ety of all kinds of me·r-chandise at mo·ney-saving prices, such as no store in an out-of-the-way small town could offer. Cu·stomers send in their orders by mail, with a remi·ttance to cover the cost, and the goods are shipped to them by pa·rcel-po·st, expre·ss or freight.

One of them even does a large e·xport bu·siness, selling at re·tail to cu·stomers in fo·reign countries. Few of their cu·stomers ever see the insi·de of the ma·il-order houses, so no pains is taken to make them attra·ctive like a re·gular re·tail store; they just look like a who·lesale esta·blishment insi·de. One of them is, in fact, a who·lesale conce·rn, selling only to re·tail stores all over the country in who·lesale qua·ntities, but using a ca·talog to secu·re orders inste·ad of hiring tra·veling sa·lesmen.

Last but not least come the *cha·in-stores*. Tho·usands and tho·usands of stores of the same kind someti·mes belo·ng to a single corpora·tion and are o·perated under one ma·nagement. They are all conne·cted toge·ther like the links of a chain.[1]

[1] By having their bu·siness well sy·stematized by e·xperts and by handling vast qua·ntities of goods by the most effi·cient me·thods, the cha·in-stores are able to sell cheap (or cut prices) and still make good money. The cha·in-store sy·stems start with just a few stores, but they grow fast by o·pening (or esta·blishing) new stores in new loca·tions, also by combi·ning (or conso·lidating) se·veral di·fferent chains into one still larger corpora·tion. Some of them are li·mited to a single city or group of cities or to a de·finite se·ction of the country, but others have spread all over the United States and even into fo·reign countries. Nearly all the five-and-ten-cent stores belo·ng to some cha·in-store sy·stem, and most of the gro·cery-stores (cha·in-groceries), ciga·r-stores and dru·gstores. There is hardly any branch of bu·siness that has no cha·in-stores in it. It may be the time is coming when all re·tail stores will be cha·in-stores.

# In a Store.

| Customer. | Sales[wo]man. |
|---|---|

## *1. Preli·minaries:*

| | |
|---|---|
| How do you do? (contra·cted: How'd do?) — Good morning. — Good afterno·on. — Good e·vening. [In most cases there i·s· no greeting.] | Good morning (, Sir); what can I do· for y·ou? — What can I show yo·u? — Is there a·nybody wa·iting o·n you? — Are you being wa·ited on? |

## *2. The buyer asks for what he wants:*

| | |
|---|---|
| (I want) a pair of brown kid gloves, please. | Do you want them light or dark? |
| I'd like to look at (or I'd like to see) some kid gloves, please. | What size do you take? About seven and three quarters? |
| Will you show me your ties, please? | What kind? Bow or four-in-hand? |
| Do you keep i·llustrated po·st-cards (pi·cture po·st-cards) with views of the town? | Yes, but they're over at the other counter. Will you come this way, please? |
| Do you sell French no·vels? Have you (got) any new ones? | No, we only keep English books. You can get French books at Brenta·no's. |
| What's the price of that trunk in the window? | Nine-fifty (or nine do·llars and a half). |

## *3. The cu·stomer doesn't like the article shown him: he asks to see others:*

| | |
|---|---|
| I don't quite like this style (or kind). Have you (got) any others? | Lots of them. How do you like these (or those)? |

Would you mind showing me (or I'd like to have) a lighter [or darker] co·lor?

These gloves seem to be too tight [or too large]. May I try one o·n?

The bu·ttons are sewed o·n very ca·relessly; the·re's one coming o·ff alre·ady.

All right (, Sir). I think I've got what you want. Will you step this way, please?

Ce·rtainly. Let me stretch them a little first. — They're a pe·rfect fit.

Yes, it's a nu·isance; they wi·ll sew them o·n so badly. If you'll wa·it a mi·nute, I'll have it put o·n for you.

## *4. As to the price:*

How much is this pair? What's the price of this pair?

What do you charge for a dozen co·llars? — How do you sell them by the dozen? — Do you make any redu·ction for a qua·ntity?

How do you sell your pi·neapples and le·mons?

Did you say this umbre·lla was two do·llars and eighty cents or two dollars and a half?

They're two do·llars and a quarter and good value (or a fine pair of gloves) for the money.

Well, we don't, as a rule, but if you take a dozen, I'll let you have them for two seventy-five.

The pi·neapples are 20 cents api·ece, and le·mons two for a nickel (5c).

It wa·s a re·gular two-e·ighty umbre·lla, but the price has been marked down to two-fifty.

## *5. The cu·stomer thinks the price too high:*

That seems rather dear. I know a place where I can get them for less.

I re·ally don't think you can do better a·nywhere in the city.

That's rather high, isn't it?

It's a ba·rgain, e·xtra good va·lue for the price.

That's more than I was thinking of paying. Two dollars and a half's a pretty high price for a pair of gloves like these.

I beg your pa·rdon. That's the best glove sold at the price. You won't find them cheaper a·nywhere in New Yo·rk.

### *6. The sa·les[wo]man enco·urages the cu·stomer to buy other a·rticles:*

What next, please? Any co·llars or cuffs?

No, I guess (southern: I re·ckon) that's all.

Is there a·nything else I can show you?

No, thank you, not toda·y.

What else can I show you?

No·thing mo·re this time.

Can I show you a·nything else?

I think that's all toda·y, thank you.

(Will you) take them wi·th you or have them sent?

I'd like to have them deli·vered; send them out as soon as you can.

What is your addre·ss, please?

Mrs. John Jones, 23 East 15th St.

House or flat?

It's a flat, third floor.

### *7. The cu·stomer pays:*

Do you give a di·scount for cash?

No, but we give trading stamps. $1.50 is the cash price.

Can you open an acco·unt for me and charge it? — Do you give cre·dit?

No, our terms are cash. We do a cash bu·siness. Will you pay the cashi·er over there, please?

Here's a ten-dollar bill.

$8.50 change. Thank you (very much).

## III. Food and Meals.

Everything eaten for no·urishment we call *food.* Befo·re being served on the di·ning-room table, the food is prepa·red by the cook in the ki·tchen. Some foods are eaten raw, too, in their na·tural state.

Americans have three *meals* a day: bre·akfast (about 7 or 8 in the morning or a little earlier or later), dinner (about noon) and supper (about 6 o'clock in the evening).

A ty·pical American *bre·akfast* is the most pe·cu·liar meal of the day to a fo·reigner. It is a more substa·ntial meal than is u·sually eaten in other countries early in the morning, and a good many of the dishes served at bre·akfast are disti·nctively American.

In our fa·mily we begin bre·akfast with *fruit:* o·ranges, gra·pefruit (a ci·trus-fruit larger than an o·range), ca·ntaloups or other fruits in se·ason.

After that, or in place of the fruit, some kind of *ce·real bre·akfast-food* is eaten with a spoon out of a bowl or saucer with su·gar and milk. A great vari·ety of pa·latable ce·real foods are on the ma·rket put up in pa·ckages ready prepa·red to be served dry. O·atmeal-mush (made of rolled oats), co·rn-meal-mush, boiled rice, ho·miny and cracked wheat are cooked at home.

Next come *meat and eggs.* Fried meat dishes are prefe·rred for brea·kfast: steaks, chops, liver, ba·con, ham and fish. Boiled meat and roasts are rese·rved for the other meals. Eggs are served

(soft, hard or me·dium) boiled, fried (straight u·p or turned o·ver), scrambled, poached or made u·p into an o·melet. "Ham and eggs" and "ba·con and eggs" are combina·tion dishes — fried eggs with slices of ham or ba·con. Fried pota·toes go with the meat or eggs as part of a re·gular bre·akfast.

After the meat and eggs *ho·tcakes* (also called pa·ncakes—jokingly "fla·pjacks") are eaten hot with butter and mola·sses or si·rup (ma·ple-si·rup pre-fe·rred). There are se·veral di·fferent kinds: whe·at cakes, bu·ckwheat cakes and corn cakes.[1] In pre·ference to ho·tcakes some other kind of hot bread[2] may be served at bre·akfast, as well as o·rdinary bread.

[1] American corn cakes are not at all the same thing as the *torti·llas* eaten in some of the Spa·nish-Ame·rican countries. American corn cakes are made of a mi·xture of co·rn-meal and (wheat) flour made into a batter with milk and eggs and raised with ba·king powder. They are fried on both sides in a·nimal fat or ve·getable oil.

[2] We make *toast* by heating slices of bread till they turn brown and get hard and brittle. It is eaten dry or buttered or soaked in milk. Poached and scrambled eggs, mushro·oms and aspa·ragus are served someti·mes "on toast." — *Bi·scuits* are hot wheat bread of an extre·mely fine te·xture, raised with baking powder and baked in the form of small round cakes. In the southern states bi·scuits are baked fresh for every meal; in the North they are ge·nerally only eaten at bre·akfast, and most fa·milies don't have them every morning even for bre·akfast. Don't confu·se them with what the English and French call bi·scuits; we call those things crackers in the United States when they are brittle and not sweetened, while the fancy sweetened varieties are called fancy cakes or cookies or have some spe·cial

Bre·akfast may end with some *stewed fruit,* ge·nerally stewed prunes, stewed ra·isins or apple sauce, in case the meal did not begin with fruit.

Soup comes the first thing at *dinner.* Crackers are eaten with the soup. Olives, ce·lery, ra·dishes, wa·tercress, green o·nions and sliced toma·toes or cu·cumbers are served as re·lishes.

Boiled and roasted meats (beef, veal, pork, mu·tton and lamb), as well as fried meat dishes (steaks, chops and cu·tlets), are eaten at dinner. Cold meats (ham, tongue, and roast beef) are also served. Other *dinner dishes* are chicken, fish (cod, trout, shad, bu·ffalo, whi·tefish, ca·tfish, sa·lmon, ha·libut, ma·ckerel, stu·rgeon) and game (wild duck, wild goose, pa·rtridge, ra·bbit).

We have boiled, fried or mashed pota·toes

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name (fi·gbars, co·conut-bars, gi·nger-snaps, etc.). — *Corn bread* is made with co·rn-meal, wheat flour, eggs, milk and baking powder and is baked in an oven in the form of a big, flat cake about an inch thick. Corn bread and hot bi·scuits made at home take the place of baker's bread to such an exte·nt in the southern states that there are not many ba·keries in that part of the country. The so·utherners look on re·gular baker's bread as such an unu·sual kind of bread that they have to have a spe·cial name for it; they call it "light bread." — *Mu·ffins* are a form of light, spongy hot bread made of a batter, not dough, and formed into thick, round cakes by being baked in a mu·ffin-pan with a number of ci·rcular depre·ssions. — *Rolls* are small pieces of bread rolled or doubled toge·ther in making. They rese·mble re·gular bread in taste and appe·arance. Some people aren't very hu·ngry in the morning and just have co·ffee and rolls for bre·akfast.

(mashed with butter and milk) and sometimes potatoes baked whole with their skins on. Other *vegetable dishes* are (boiled, fried or baked) sweet potatoes, corn on the cob, sweet corn, succotash, fried eggplant, stewed tomatoes, (baked, boiled or mashed) pumpkin or squash, (stewed or fried) onions, green peas, string-beans, Lima beans, beets, carrots, parsnips, turnips, cauliflower, cabbage, spinach, asparagus and, in the southern states, gumbo (or okra pods). Baked macaroni and cheese, spaghetti and (Boston) baked beans are other well-known dishes.

Pickles and *salad* are generally on the table. Potato salad, lettuce, cold slaw, fruit salad and combination salad are the commonest kinds.

The most common *desserts* are pudding, ice-cream, pie, cake, nuts and fruit (fresh, dried or stewed). Dessert is the last thing at dinner.

There isn't any soup at *supper:* otherwise supper is about like dinner, except that it isn't quite so hearty a meal. Dishes prepared by frying are more likely to be served at supper than at dinner.

Butter is always on the table; it's considered an essential part of every meal. Tea and coffee, especially coffee, with or without sugar and cream, are the principal hot drinks. Still a good many people prefer cocoa or chocolate, especially for breakfast. Some people drink nothing but water or milk. Ice-water, iced tea and lemonade are table drinks in the summer-time.

In case people are away from home all day, they may have their "dinner" when they get back in the evening. They call their light meal at 12 o'clock "lunch." Even when they have their biggest meal at noon, city people often call their meals bre·akfast, lunch and dinner. *Lunch* is more co·mmonly consi·dered to be a bite of something eaten betwe·en meals or else a meal eaten without being spread on a table, as at a pi·cnic or in a pe·rson's o·wn room. Some of the re·staurants make no di·fference betwe·en dinner and supper; they serve what they call "dinner" from 11 a. m.[1] to 8 p. m.[2] Their pa·trons get o·ne bre·akfast and two· dinners every day — no lunch or supper. Now and then a re·staurant avo·ids confu·sion by calling the last two meals of the day the "no·on meal" and the "e·vening meal." How would it do for the rest of us to ado·pt the same cu·stom?

Of course it's consi·dered a great ho·nor to be *invi·ted o·ut* to dinner. Invita·tions are often given ve·rbally. When you rece·ive a written invita·tion, ackno·wledgment should be made also in writing, either acce·pting the invita·tion or saying that a pre·-vious enga·gement will preve·nt you from acce·pt-ing it or giving (or making) some other excu·se.

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[1] La·tin *ante meridiem*. Read alo·ud, *ay emm* or *in the morning* or *in the foreno·on*. The abbre·viated form, *ay emm,* is hardly ever used in conversa·tion.

[2] *p. m.* is to be read, *pee emm* or *in the afterno·on* or *in the e·vening*. In conversa·tion the fu·ll form is used.

# At Table.

**Host[ess].**

What'll you have to drink? Tea, co·ffee or milk?

Do you take su·gar and cream in your co·ffee?

Will you (or Won't you) have some bu·ttered toast with your co·ffee?

He·re's ham, cold roast beef and dried beef; which do you prefe·r?

Do you like your beef well done or rare?

Take some more fried chi·cken, do·ctor. It won't do you any harm, I'm sure.

What can I help you to now? Won't you try some su·ccotash?

Help yourse·lf.

Any more beef, Mr. Fay? Have some more lo·bster, Mr. Shaw.

Shall I pass you the mu·stard?

I see your plate's empty; won't you take ano·ther slice of mu·tton?

You haven't eaten any fruit. Do· take some of these grapes.

You a·re a poor eater. I'm afra·id you haven't made much of a meal.

**Guest.**

Tea, please. — I'll take a cup of co·ffee, if you please.

Yes, please. — Only su·gar; no cre·am please.

No, thank you; I think I'll take some bi·scuits and je·lly.

I think I'll trouble you for a slice of cold roast beef, if you please.

I'd rather have it rare, please.

You're very kind, Mrs. Brown; I guess I wi·ll take a little more. I'm very fond of chi·cken.

Su·ccotash? I never ate any. You might give me a little just to try it.

Tha·nk you; I wi·ll.

No more, thank you. No thank you; I'll not take any more.

Thank you very much, but I never ta·ke mu·stard.

I'm much obli·ged to you, Mrs. D., but I'd rather not, tha·nk you.

No, thanks; if you'll ex·cu·se me, I'd rather not take any.

No, thank you; I've had a hearty meal. — I've done very well, inde·ed.

*Other table phrases (betwe·en ne·ighbors):*

(a) May I trouble you for the bread, please?
Will you pass the water, please?
Please pass the vi·negar.
When you rece·ive what you've asked for, you say: "Thanks" or "Thank you."

(b) What are you looking for?
Can I he·lp you to a·nything?
Is there a·nything I can pa·ss you?
The phrases given above under (a) can be used as a·nswers to these que·stions.

(c) Would you like some ve·getables?
May I ha·nd you the toma·toes?
Won't you help yourse·lf to the prese·rves?
Do you (or I suppo·se you) use ca·tsup?
If you don't wa·nt any, your a·nswer is, "No, thank you."
If you acce·pt, you say: "If you please" or "Yes, please," befo·re you rece·ive what's passed to you, or else "Thank you," a·fter you rece·ive it.

## IV. Private Houses and Hotels.

I live at home with my pa·rents. My father's *house* is a fine, large building at 1039 N. Clark St.[1] That's our street and number. Our house has a fine sa·ndstone front with bay wi·ndows; the other walls are brick. It has a sloping slate roof. There

[1] Read: *Ten thirty-ni·ne North Clark Street.* House numbers and dates of four fi·gures are generally divi·ded in the middle, and each half is read the same as a se·parate number. But $1039 is either *ten hu·ndred and thirty-ni·ne do·llars* or else *a tho·usand and thirty-ni·ne do·llars* — never *ten thirty-ni·ne dollars.* As a te·lephone number 1039 is called *one oh three nine.*

are a lot of brick buildings in the *ne·ighborhood* with flat gra·vel roofs and sky·lights. A fine church a couple of blocks down the street has a tile roof. There aren't many frame houses (built of lumber) with sloping shingle roofs in this part of town. Se·veral chi·mneys on top of the roof carry the smoke away; a we·ather-vane shows what dire·ction the wind is blowing; a lightning-rod prote·cts the house from li·ghtning. A gutter runs along the eaves and colle·cts the ra·in-water; spouts carry it down the walls into the ci·stern.

Our house has se·veral *stories* (or floors): the ba·sement (belo·w the le·vel of the street), the first story (or ground floor), the se·cond story (or se·cond floor) and the top floor with the ga·rret (or a·ttic). A sta·irway leads from each floor to the next, with a railing (or ba·nister) at the side to keep people from falling.

After ringing the bell[1] strangers and vi·sitors are admi·tted to the house thru the front door; members of the fa·mily u·sually carry a key and can come i·n witho·ut distu·rbing any one in the house. People coming i·n scrape their feet (or shoes) on the scraper and wipe them on the mat.

Then they step into the *hall,* a kind of ve·stibule with doors opening into other rooms on the ground floor. The sta·irway to the upper stories

[1] A few old-fa·shioned houses built long ago have an i·ron or brass knocker on the front door. At such places vi·sitors give 4 or 5 raps (or knocks) with the knocker.

begi·ns there, too. The hall has an umbre·lla-stand in it and a ha·t-rack (with se·veral pegs or hooks) and a large lo·oking-glass (or mi·rror); if the three are combi·ned, such a piece of fu·rniture is called a ha·ll-tree. In some houses a tall, old-fa·shioned "gra·ndfather's clock" stands on the floor in the hall. The te·lephone may be insta·lled in the hall, too.

Doors open from the hall into the *pa·rlor* (the room where co·mpany is rece·ived), the *si·tting-room* (or *li·ving-room* — where the members of the fa·mily spend their time during the day) and the *di·ning-room*. The *ki·tchen* is on the first floor, too, at the back of the house, reached from the hall by going thru the di·ning-room. The *pa·ntry* is a small room at one side of the ki·tchen, where provi·sions, dishes and ki·tchen ute·nsils are kept. A refri·gerator in the ki·tchen or pantry keeps pe·rishable foods fresh and cool. Ice is bought for the refri·gerator every day from the i·ceman on his rounds. Some people have a mecha·nical refri·gerator that needs no ice but is run inste·ad by gas or electri·city. In some parts of the country dwe·lling-houses have a *ce·llar* under them for keeping pe·rishable or bu·lky provi·sions. The *be·drooms* (or *sle·eping-rooms*) are up-sta·irs. A door opens from each be·droom into a wa·rdrobe (or clo·set).

There is a *ba·throom* (or *to·ilet-room*) on each floor above the first (the ground floor) with an

ena·meled ba·thtub in it, po·rcelain wa·ter-clo·set fi·xtures and a la·vatory with a marble slab and sunken po·rcelain bowl. A lo·oking-glass (or mi·rror) hangs on the wall.

Mo·dern houses are piped for *water* and *gas* and wired for *electri·city*. There are ga·s-jets or incande·scent ele·ctric lights in every room and switches for turning the ele·ctric light o·n or o·ff by pressing a bu·tton. The We·lsbach light is a very bright and cheap ga·slight; its extrao·rdinary bri·ghtness is due to an incande·scent "mantle," a de·licate woven sheath placed over the flame of an o·rdinary ga·s-burner.

Mo·dern houses are either ste·am-heated or else heated by hot water or hot air. The *heater* is insta·lled in the ba·sement, and the coal supply· is down there, too. Small and old-fa·shioned houses are heated with *stoves*, and the fu·el is kept outsi·de (of) the house in the co·al-shed or wo·od-shed. Co·ok-stoves and ranges are used for cooking.

There is a *fi·replace* in almost every room in the southern states, where the winters are milder than in the North. In other parts of the country people someti·mes have a fi·replace in the si·tting-room or pa·rlor and keep a fire going in it in the wi·nter-time in addi·tion to the hot air or ste·am-heat, just to give the home an appe·arance of che·erful co·mfort. Some houses have a dummy (or imita·tion) fi·replace with a mantel, but no fire can be made in it. A re·gular fi·replace is an open

hearth in the wall at the bo·ttom of a brick chi·mney, to carry the smoke away. The fu·el (wood or coal) is put on an i·ron grate. A fender (a low me·tal railing in front of the hearth) keeps falling coals from rolling onto the rug or ca·rpet.

A *flat* is a group of rooms on the same floor in an apa·rtment-house (or flat building), all conne·cted with each other and o·ccupied by a single fa·mily. When you go into an apa·rtment-house, you ge·nerally find two flats (or apa·rtments) on the first floor, one on the right and one on the left of the e·ntrance; up-sta·irs there are also two flats on each floor, one on each side of the sta·irway. Each flat conta·ins a li·ving-room, be·drooms, a di·ning-room, a ki·tchen and a ba·throom. Some of the larger apa·rtment-houses have a number of e·ntrances and sta·irways in them and enough flats to acco·mmodate a hu·ndred fa·milies or more. Apa·rtment-houses are only found in the large cities.

All the *rooms* are either pa·pered or ca·lcimined. There are no pi·ctures on the walls in the kitchen, hall or ba·throom; but pho·tographs, engra·vings, po·rtraits and paintings are seen in the other rooms. Some houses have va·rnished ha·rdwood floors. The ki·tchen and the a·ttic are not ca·rpeted. The other rooms have matting, ca·rpets or large rugs on the floor. The ba·throom has a tile floor, and the ki·tchen floor is co·vered with lino·leum or o·ilcloth.

American *wi·ndows* are made in two halves. The lower half is pushed u·p in its frame to open it. The upper half can be opened by pulling it do·wn. That way it's po·ssible to leave just a small open place either at the top or at the bo·ttom. Such wi·ndows are not li·able to be banged abo·ut and broken, either, when the wind is blowing. Do·or-like wi·ndows turning on hinges, used in other countries, are easier to wash and have the addi·tional adva·ntage of leaving the enti·re space of the wi·ndow open when you want it that way. American windows can never be more than half opened.

There are *cu·rtains* and (roller) blinds at the wi·ndows, to keep people outsi·de from seeing i·n. In small places and in the country there are often a pair of *shutters* o·utside of each wi·ndow. They are painted green and turn on hinges. City houses someti·mes have va·rnished folding shutters i·nside (of) the wi·ndows. The shutters are closed (or shut) at night. Flo·wer-pots or wi·ndow-boxes stand on the wi·ndow-sill. Screens in the windows keep o·ut flies and mosqui·toes. An awning of ca·nvas keeps out the hot sun.

Bouquets (or cut flowers) in china or glass or metal vases are kept either on the table or on the *ma·ntelpiece*. There are all sorts (or kinds) of kni·ckknacks and a ha·ndsome marble clock on the ma·ntelpiece, too.

Our fu·rniture is so·lid and ha·ndsome, espe·cially the oak fu·rniture in the di·ning-room. The

*di·ning-room fu·rniture* consi·sts of a si·deboard (or a cu·pboard, in plain ho·useholds), a chi·na-closet, a table and a number of high-backed di·ning-room chairs.

The *pa·rlor* (or li·ving-room) is very snug and cosy. It's fu·rnished the nicest of any room in the house. It has a da·venport in it, a sette·e, upho·lstered or ca·ne-seated chairs, a table and a pia·no.

The *be·drooms* are all fu·rnished the same way. The main piece of fu·rniture in a be·droom, of course, is the bed. Both wooden and me·tal be·dsteads (brass or ena·meled i·ron) are in use in this country. The be·dsprings rest on the be·dstead. They support a ho·rsehair or fe·lt ma·ttress. A sheet is spread over the ma·ttress. A pi·llow in its pi·llow-case comes next. The covers are ano·ther sheet, a single or double bla·nket, a co·mforter and a be·dspread. There is a wa·sh-stand[1] near the bed, with a wa·sh-bowl and pi·tcher, a so·ap-dish, a small pi·tcher of drinking water and a tumbler (or water glass). There are se·veral to·wels hung on

[1] Wa·sh-stands are still provi·ded in the so·uthern states and in small places in other parts of the country, but they are going out of use in the large cities of the North. People wash themse·lves at the la·vatory in the ba·throom (or to·ilet-room) and no water or washing faci·lities are found in the be·drooms, as a rule. Still it's a great conve·nience someti·mes to be able to wash in your own room. In houses and flats with a good many roomers, they are all li·kely to get u·p about the same time in the morning, and only one at a time can have a·ccess to the ba·throom, while the rest have to wait.

a horizo·ntal wooden rod acro·ss the top of the wa·sh-stand or else on a me·tal to·wel-rack atta·ched to the side of the wa·sh-stand. The dirty water is e·mptied into a slo·p-jar standing on the floor at one side of the wa·sh-stand. A dresser (or bu·reau) with a lo·oking-glass and drawers [or a chiffonier] and se·veral chairs, inclu·ding a ro·cking-chair, are other pieces of be·droom fu·rniture.

Few dwe·lling-houses in large cities, but nearly all houses in small towns and in the su·burbs, have a *yard* around them. The front yard has a lawn ge·nerally and someti·mes sha·de-trees or flo·wer-beds. A ga·rden, fru·it-trees and someti·mes an o·uthouse or two (stable, garage, wa·sh-house, co·al-shed) are found in the back yard.

We own our own home. Most American fa·milies *rent* a house to live in and have to pay the owner (the la·ndlord or la·ndlady) so much a month for rent. Some people rent a flat inste·ad of a house. Others live in fu·rnished rooms, especially single people (ba·chelors and unmarried women); they are called "roomers" and rent their rooms by the week or month.

When a stranger inte·nds to stay in o·ne town for a consi·derable length of time — say a month or so — he will do well to rent a *fu·rnished room* or a suite of rooms in a pri·vate house und eat at the re·staurants. Houses where there are rooms to rent ge·nerally have a big printed card bearing the inscri·ption, "Rooms" or "Fu·rnished Rooms

(to Rent)," displa·yed in the front wi·ndow or else tacked to the wall just outsi·de (of) the front door.

Fo·reigners who come to the United States for a while to learn the la·nguage and study American life and ways may do better to stay at a *bo·arding-house*. They can have a room and three meals a day for $10 or $12 a week. Tra·nsients (boarders staying only a day or two) pay higher rates. No redu·ction is made if you miss a meal or two. All meals are taken with the other boarders, who are li·kely to be fri·endly and ta·lkative people, and there is a good deal more opportu·nity to get acqua·inted than there is in an hote·l or re·staurant.

The *clubs* furnish a place where their members can meet their friends and pass the time agre·eably. In some cases the clu·bhouses have living accommoda·tions in them like an hote·l, but only for members and their guests, besi·des such fe·atures as reading rooms, bi·lliard-rooms, a gymna·sium and a swimming pool. They are a kind of colle·ctive home for their members.

Tra·velers, to·urists and drummers (or comme·rcial tra·velers) find su·itable accommoda·tions in some *hote·l* or other. The rates charged vary acco·rding to the loca·tion and size of the room. When you want to put u·p at an hote·l, you walk into the (hote·l) o·ffice and sign your name and write your address in a big re·gister on the counter. When you have re·gistered, the clerk takes note of the time of your arri·val and assi·gns you a

room. He sends a bell-boy u·p with you in the e·levator[1] to show you your room. The be·drooms, ba·throoms and pu·blic pa·rlors are in the upper stories; the ground floor is o·ccupied enti·rely by the ki·tchen, the di·ning-room, the o·ffice and the ba·rber-shop.

There are ge·nerally a lot of guests lounging about the *hote·l o·ffice* (or lobby), writing letters, reading the pa·pers or smoking. It's cu·stomary for the clerk to supply· guests of the house witho·ut charge with all the printed hote·l sta·tionery (letter-heads, note-heads, e·nvelopes) they may need. He is suppo·sed to know a little of e·verything; when any of the guests want informa·tion about the town, ra·ilroads, steamers or a·nything else, they go to hi·m for it. Hote·l keys are fa·stened to a big brass star or rose·tte; tha·t makes it easy for guests to reme·mber to leave them in the o·ffice when they go o·ut. The clerk keeps the keys all arra·nged in o·rder on a ke·y-rack. When you come i·n again, you tell him the number of your room, and he gives you back your key.

Some American hote·ls are run on the *Europe·an plan*; they have a re·staurant or di·ning-room in conne·ction with them nearly always, but rooms are rented se·parate, and guests are not expe·cted to take their meals in the house unless they want

[1] All hote·ls and bu·siness buildings of any impo·rtance, as well as large apa·rtment-houses, have e·levators. Some-ti·mes there are a dozen e·levators or more in the same building.

to. In *American plan* hote·ls meals are inclu·ded in the rates charged, and rooms are not rented alo·ne. In small towns hote·ls are always run on the American plan, just as bo·arding-houses are. There is never any e·xtra charge for light, heat or care of the room.

Unless they have a room engaged in adva·nce, tra·velers have a *conversa·tion* so·mething like this, when they arri·ve at their hote·l:

**Traveler.**

Is this hote·l Europe·an or American plan? Do you rent rooms alo·ne?

Can you let me have a dollar and a half room; a room with o·ne bed [two·beds]?

Have you (or is there) a va·cant room for me?

That'll be all right. Will you let me see them?

What are your rates? — What do you charge a night for this room?

What are your rates by the week? — Do you make a redu·ction for a week's stay?

All right. I'll take the back room for a week.

I want to be called at six in the morning.

**Hotel Keeper.**

It's Europe·an. You can have a room here and take your meals e·lsewhere, if you like.

I'm sorry, but I haven't a single one left (or va·cant or to spare).

Oh, yes; there are two left on the se·cond floor.

Certainly. Come this way to the e·levator.

The front rooms are $2 a night and the back rooms $1.50.

I can let you have the large room for ten dollars or the one at the back for seven-fifty.

Come down to the office and re·gister, and I'll have your ba·ggage sent u·p.

All right.

Before going to bed [or to sleep], I bolt the door of my room, or I lock it by giving the key a turn. I let the wi·ndow down from the top, too, for ventila·tion.

## V. Eating and Drinking Places.

When me·al-time comes around, I go into a *re·staurant,* and I look the bill of fare over befo·re I make up my mind what I want to eat. One of the waiters brings me a knife, a fork, a couple of spoons, a glass of water, an indivi·dual pat of butter and a plate of bread. He takes my order and calls it o·ut to the cook in the ki·tchen. My meal is soon served — first the soup, then the meat and side dishes. The desse·rt is someti·mes served at the same time as the meat and ve·getables, when it's inclu·ded in the price of the meal and not ordered se·parately, but it's ge·nerally brought towa·rds the end of the meal. A cup of co·ffee or so·mething else to drink is served during the meal. Drinking the co·ffee after fi·nishing the rest of the meal is a fo·reign cu·stom.

When I'm about thru, the waiter gives me my check. I *pay* the amo·unt i·ndicated on the check to the cashi·er as I go o·ut, and he rings it u·p on the cash re·gister. As a rule, a meal costs about 50 cents in an o·rdinary re·staurant and more in a stri·ctly hi·gh-cla·ss place. In cheap re·staurants some of the food is li·kely to be stale or not pro·perly cooked, the butter is oleoma·rgarin, and the

ta·blecloth and the cooking may not be as clean as they ought to be. People that can affo·rd it prefe·r to go to a nicer place where e·verything is neat, fresh and clean.

A pecu·liar fe·ature of American re·staurants is the *lu·nch-counter* found in a good many places that serve meals at po·pular prices. The lu·nch-counter runs along one side of the room, or someti·mes it enclo·ses a recta·ngular space in the middle of the re·staurant. There is a row of one-legged i·ron stools fa·stened secu·rely to the floor in front of the counter, and at me·al-time you can see a row of men sitting on those stools, eating with their hats on. I, for my· part, prefe·r to take my hat off and sit do·wn at one of the tables.

The *cafete·rias* are a kind of re·staurant for men and women on the he·lp-yourse·lf plan. There are no waiters. Each pa·tron, as he comes i·n, picks up a tray and helps himse·lf to a na·pkin, plate, knife, fork and a couple of spoons. Then he passes by a long counter with a large vari·ety of foods in plain sight for him to take his choice, assi·sted by atte·ndants behi·nd the counter. As he passes the inspe·ctor's desk, she gives him his check, after counting up what the things on his tray amo·unt to. Everything has its se·parate price down to the last slice of bread; if you take three slices of bread, or two, or only one, it makes a di·fference. The di·ning-room pro·per in such places is filled with tables, where the pa·trons sit down to eat.

The *dairy lunch rooms* have no waiters either. The pa·trons are all men. They eat sitting in big a·rmchairs; a horizo·ntal wooden ta·blet, big enough to hold two plates, is fa·stened to one of the arms of each chair and takes the place of a table. Dairy lunch rooms are quite clean and attra·ctive places. The food is fairly good, and the prices mo·derate. A dairy lunch room, tho, is no place at all to get a "square meal": the foods to be had are only such things as cold meats, baked beans, spaghe·tti, sa·ndwiches, pie and co·ffee.

There are so many cafete·rias and dairy lunch rooms now, and they give vegeta·rians such a good chance to sele·ct a meal made up of foods to their liking, that the special *vegeta·rian re·staurants* have been driven out of bu·siness. Vegeta·rians live on grains, nuts, ve·getables and fruit. Most of them eat eggs and dairy pro·ducts (milk, cream, butter and cheese) besi·des, but no other foods of a·nimal o·rigin. Some of the sanita·riums have ado·pted a vegeta·rian di·et.

A meal made up of a fixed combina·tion of foods served on plates at a ce·rtain price is called a *table d'hôte* dinner someti·mes in high class re·staurants in this country, but the real French name for it would be a "dîner à prix fixe."

The Chine·se *chop su·ey re·staurants* in the large cities are hi·gh-cla·ss places, fu·rnished and de·corated in Chine·se style. The propri·etors and waiters are Chi·namen. Chop su·ey, Chine·se noodles, fried

rice and other Chinese dishes are served in Chine·se style, exce·pt that pa·trons are not expe·cted to eat with cho·p-sticks. — In some parts of the West and Southwest, there are cheap re·staurants run enti·rely in American style by Chi·nese and Ja·panese propri·etors.

A large number of re·staurants scattered over a city are ma·naged someti·mes by a single co·mpany. A *chain of re·staurants,* like a cha·in-store sy·stem, is more econo·mical to ma·nage and more effi·cient than the same number of indepe·ndent re·staurants. Se·veral sy·stems of cha·in-re·staurants o·perate in different cities all over the country, others only in one city.

The cu·stom of giving *tips* to waiters in hote·ls and re·staurants is not as (or so) pre·valent in this country as it is in Europe. Waiters even in cheap re·staurants in the South someti·mes expe·ct a tip, but as a rule tips are only given in other parts of the country in hote·ls and re·staurants where a meal costs a pretty fair price. Even then it is not a·lways re·ally ne·cessary, and pa·trons often only do it with the idea of enco·uraging the waiter to give them better atte·ntion than other people get at su·bsequent meals. Ten cents is u·sually enough for the waiter. If the cost of the meal is over a do·llar, give him 10 per cent (but no odd cents).

Since 1920 the United States has been a "dry" country. An ame·ndment to the constitu·tion went into effe·ct at tha·t time, provi·ding for the *pro-*

*hibi·tion* of the manufa·cture, sale and transporta·tion inside the United States of into·xicating li·quors for be·verage pu·rposes, as well as prohi·biting the importa·tion and exporta·tion of alcoho·lic drinks. It seemed to be the end of a long struggle betwe·en the "wets" and the "drys," but, as a matter of fact, it turned out to be not much more than the begi·nning. The go·vernment has not been able to enfo·rce prohibi·tion effe·ctively. It is still a burning pu·blic que·stion more than it ever was befo·re.

Most of the bre·weries and disti·lleries have been conve·rted to the prepara·tion of other no·nalcoho·lic food or drink pro·ducts. The bre·weries are still allowed to make and sell *ne·ar-be·er,* a kind of weak beer with less than half of 1 per ce·nt a·lcohol in it. Ano·ther institu·tion before unkno·wn to the American people is *ho·me-bre·w,* beer made at home on the ki·tchen-sto·ve with ingre·dients bought in the stores. Mo·onshiners are at work here and there making *mo·onshine whisky* on the sly to be sold on the quiet by bo·otleggers in viola·tion of the law.

Real li·quor and re·gular beer of full strength are still sold someti·mes in the salo·ons and ni·ghtclubs on the qui·et. Prices are set high enough to co·mpensate the salo·on-keeper or the propri·etor of the "joint" for the risk he takes of having a big fine to pay or a pri·son se·ntence to serve for viola·ting the law. Besi·des there are *spe·ak-easies,*

where "booze" or "hootch" (slang for li·quor) is sold se·cretly. The drugstores are still allowed to furnish li·quor for me·dical pu·rposes when a do·ctor's prescri·ption is prese·nted calling for it. But whe·rever or ho·wever it is sold, the price is high.

Most of the *salo·ons* have gone out of bu·siness, but not all of them. Their bu·siness has been redu·ced by prohibi·tion, but, at the same time, their expe·nses are less now, for they have no high li·cense to pay any more. In some places a salo·on used to have to pay as much as $1,500 a year for its li·cense. The few salo·ons that are still left sell ne·ar-be·er and soft drinks, as well as ciga·rs, and they often have some i·ncome from lunches or meals to help out. The salo·on-keepers have ba·rtenders hired to tend bar for them. The ba·rtender stands behi·nd the bar. The pa·trons drink standing u·p in fro·nt of it. Dru·nkards drink to the point of losing self-contro·l and often make a pu·blic spe·ctacle of themse·lves as o·bjects of pity or disgu·st. Mo·derate drinkers are ca·reful not to get drunk. Teeto·talers are to·tal absta·iners: they beli·eve in to·tal a·bstinence; they refu·se to drink anything with a·lcohol in it at all.

Such drinks as so·da-water, i·ce-cream so·da and lemona·de you can get in the *i·ce-cream pa·rlors* and in a good many dru·gstores. These places serve hot cho·colate, too, in cold weather.

## VI. Toilet.

Befo·re we go to bed at night, we undre·ss (or take o·ff our clothes) and put o·n a ni·ghtshirt or paja·mas (a two·-piece sleeping suit). In the morning we dress (or put o·n our clothes) again.

When I wake u·p after a good night's rest, I'm in the ha·bit of rubbing my eyes first of all, and then I get u·p and slip my feet into my slippers and go and have a *bath*. There's a ba·throom near my be·droom, and I take a cold bath (a tub bath or a sho·wer-bath) the first thing every morning. Some people have no ba·throom; the only kind of a bath they can have is a spo·nge-bath at the wa·sh-stand in their sleeping room. After the bath I rub myse·lf dry· with a rough (Tu·rkish bath) to·wel. I take some systema·tic e·xercise (light gymna·stics, calisthe·nics, Swe·dish mo·vements) in my room, either befo·re or a·fter the bath.

Then I'm ready to *dress*. I put o·n my u·nder-clothes (a u·nion-suit or an u·ndershirt and a pair of drawers), my shirt, my pants (or trousers), my socks and my slippers.

My beard grows very fast, so I have a *shave* every morning. Getting shaved at the ba·rber-shop is a disagre·eable affa·ir for me· and a waste of time and mo·ney, so I prefe·r to shave myse·lf. I u·sed to use an o·ld-style ra·zor, a (ra·zor-)strop and a sha·ving-mug. Now I moisten my beard, rub a piece of sha·ving-soap on it, and then work up a lather right on my face with a sha·ving-brush, and

I shave myself with a sa·fety-ra·zor. When the blades of the sa·fety-ra·zor get dull, I have them resha·rpened, or I throw them away and buy ne·w ones. Even the brush and sha·ving-soap can be dispensed with by using the special prepara·tions for softening the beard sold in colla·psible tubes; they are simply rubbed on the face with the tips of the fingers.

When I get thru shaving myse·lf, I have a good *wash* in cold water, for cold water's he·althier and more refre·shing than warm or hot water. I use a cake of (to·ilet-)so·ap and someti·mes a sponge or a wa·sh-cloth. I clean my (fi·nger-)nails with a na·il-brush. I use either a rough to·wel or an o·rdinary soft to·wel to dry· myse·lf with.

Then I brush my *teeth* with a to·oth-brush and some to·oth-paste or to·oth-powder, and I rinse my mouth. I pick my teeth, too, with a to·othpick and rinse my mouth after every meal to keep my teeth from deca·ying. When I have fi·nished washing myse·lf and brushing my teeth, I comb my *hair* with a comb and brush it with a (ha·ir-)brush. I disli·ke bay rum and hair to·nics and never put any on my hair.

I *fi·nish dressing* by putting on a starched or a soft co·llar (fa·stened to the ne·ck-band of the shirt with co·llar buttons), and I tie my tie (a silk fo·ur-in-hand or bow tie). Then I put on my vest and after that my coat.

Befo·re I go down to bre·akfast, I take o·ff my slippers and put o·n a pair of *shoes*. If they are

not clean and well blacked, I clean and shine[1] them. Bu·ttoned shoes are bu·ttoned with a bu·t-ton-hook; laced shoes are laced by hand. In summer I prefe·r tan shoes (shoes of a ye·llow-brown or tan co·lor). As for my "pa·tent le·athers" (pa·tent le·ather shoes), I only put them o·n when the weather's very fine or when I go to a pa·rty. When there's snow or bad weather, I wear rubbers (low, like slippers) or o·vershoes (with high cloth tops bu·ckled around the ankles), or else I put o·n rubber boots[2] (or "gum boots") in place of shoes.

Befo·re I go o·ut, I brush my hat[3] and put o·n a pair of *gloves*.

In *winter* I wear heavier and warmer clothes than in summer. When it gets cold, I put o·n my

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[1] The Europe·an cu·stom of setting shoes outsi·de (of) the be·droom door at night, to be blacked by the se·rvant early in the morning, is not followed in the United States. A shine or po·lish can be had for 10 cents in the barber shops or at the bo·otblack stands on the streets and in hote·ls and ra·ilroad de·pots. But most Americans shine their o·wn shoes, every one for himse·lf.

[2] Boots have long tops, reaching up nearly to the knees; shoes have short tops, reaching up a little higher than the a·nkles; low shoes have no tops at all and only reach up to the ankles. Both kinds of shoes are co·mmonly refe·rred to simply as "shoes."

[3] A stiff *fe·lt-hat* is ge·nerally called a *stiff hat* or a *de·rby*. A *soft hat* is another kind of felt hat. For a tall *silk hat*, Americans have a vari·ety of names: *silk hat, tall hat, high hat, sto·vepipe hat* and *tile*. A silk hat that a man can fold flat and hold under his arm is called an *o·pera-hat*. *Straw hats* and *Pa·nama hats* are worn in the su·mmer-time.

o·vercoat. When freezing weather comes, I wear a fu·r(-lined) coat, a fur cap and fu·r-lined gloves.

My *wa·rdrobe* (or clo·set) is full of all kinds of clothes, all kept well brushed and neatly pressed. I have a light o·vercoat (for spring and fall wear); a winter o·vercoat (for cold weather); a rain coat or ma·ckintosh (a long, wa·terproof o·vercoat, named after Ma·ckintosh, the inve·ntor); a long, do·uble-bre·asted Prince Albert coat (going down to the knees, with squa·re-co·rnered skirts and two· rows of bu·ttons); a cu·taway coat (si·ngle-bre·asted, with the corners of the long skirts cut awa·y in front); se·veral sack coats (o·rdinary short coats); any number of pants (or trousers) and vests and a dress suit (with a swa·llowtail coat and a lo·w-cut vest) for swell occa·sions.

The di·fferent *parts of a coat* are the sleeves, the co·llar, the lape·ls, the tail(s) and the lining. My dress coat has a silk lining. Men's ga·rments have po·ckets for carrying such things as a ha·nd-kerchief, a knife (pe·nknife, po·cket-knife), keys, a watch, a fo·untain pen, a pe·ncil (le·ad-pencil), a memora·ndum-book, a po·cket mi·rror, a po·cket comb and a le·tter-case (for letters and papers) or a bi·ll-book (for paper mo·ney). Po·cketbooks (or purses) are an old-fa·shioned nu·isance; I carry my mo·ney loose in my pants po·cket. Coats can be worn bu·ttoned (u·p) or u·nbuttoned; vests are always worn bu·ttoned (u·p). When a bu·tton gets loose or comes o·ff, it has to be sewed o·n again.

Men's pants are held u·p by (a pair of) *suspe·nders* or by a belt in the su·mmer-time. Boys' (knee) pants and kni·ckerbockers are often suppo·rted by being bu·ttoned to a waist (a su·bstitute for a shirt, with bu·ttons around the waist). So·me boys wear suspe·nders, too.

I have my clothes made to order by a high-class *tailor*. He turns out no·thing but first-class work and guarante·es a pe·rfect fit and the latest style. He took my me·asure the other day for a sack suit. My ta·ilor has a large asso·rtment of all wool mate·rials in all the fa·shionable shades [or co·lors]. He has goods in so·lid co·lors, as well as checks and stripes.

The upper part of a *wo·man's dress* is the waist (or blouse), and the lo·wer part is called the skirt. One-piece dresses do not have a se·parate waist and skirt. Wo·men's ta·ilor-made suits are made in two pieces, of rather heavy woolen cloth, about as heavy, in fact, as is used for men's clothing. The top piece is called a coat (or ja·cket) and looks a little like a man's coat and is worn the same way. The skirt of a ta·ilor-made suit is worn with a waist. When wo·men took to wearing their hair bobbed or shingled, they wore sca·nty o·ne-piece dresses, someti·mes cut low at the neck, often with short sleeves or no sleeves at all, and reaching only to the knees or a little belo·w the knees. Now the style has changed, and a good many women and girls are letting their hair grow long again and

wearing longer dresses with drapes and flounces. In any case they wear silk stockings and low shoes.

Wo·men wear *hats* on their heads. Hats that can be pulled well down over the head are worn with bobbed or shingled hair. Wo·men's hats are made of straw, felt, silk or some other mate·rial. *Veils* are not much worn [are worn a good deal] now. Well-dressed wo·men may wear a pair of (fa·bric, cha·mois or kid) *gloves* or go witho·ut them. When they are doing their ho·usework, they someti·mes wear an *a·pron* of cotton cloth or rubber. They put on a warm *coat* (or cloak) when they go o·ut in cold weather, or they may even wear *furs:* a fur coat or a fur co·llar (covering the neck and shoulders) or a stole (a long, flat band of fur) or a bo·a (a round, se·rpent-shaped piece) and a muff (a ho·llow cy·linder of fur to put their hands into, to keep them warm).

American *scho·olboys* wear a coat, a waist or a shirt, knee pants and stockings, a cap or a soft hat, and in winter an o·vercoat. When Su·nday comes, they dress u·p in their Su·nday clothes. Someti·mes they wear kni·ckerbockers or a sa·ilor suit.

When our li·nen and u·nderwear get dirty, they have to be sent to the *la·undry,* unle·ss a la·undress (or wa·shwoman or wa·sherwoman) comes to the house to wash, dry and i·ron them. Things that have to be stiff, such as co·llars, cuffs, shi·rtbo·soms and wri·stbands, must be starched before they are i·roned. Bu·ndles left befo·re 8 a. m. at

so·me la·undries or at their a·gencies can be called for the evening of the same day. There is more fa·mily-washing done now by the big steam-la·undries than there ever was before. The la·undries take good care of the wash, call for and deli·ver it and do better work than can be done at home. Ho·usewives are pleased at the low cost of their se·rvice. The inve·ntion of ele·ctric washing machi·nes and i·roners has taken the curse off of wa·shday for tho·usands of other American ho·use-wives who do their own washing at home.

Americans are more often seen wearing *glasses* than fo·reigners. A good many people have to wear (a pair of) spe·ctacles (fami·liarly: "specs") or e·ye-glasses. There are glasses with gold, silver, steel, alu·minum, ni·ckel, horn and tu·rtle-shell frames. There are conca·ve glasses for ne·ar-sighted pe·rsons, as well as conve·x glasses for fa·r-sighted people.

Most people have a *watch* and chain. There is often a charm fa·stened to the chain (a coin, an e·mblem or some tri·nket or other). Rings (plain or with some pre·cious stone for a setting) are also worn. Bre·astpins (or brooches), bra·celets, ne·cklaces, lo·ckets, pins and e·arrings are other a·rticles of *je·welry* worn by ladies.

People take an *umbre·lla* with them when they go o·ut on a rainy day. Cripples and feeble old men walk with a *cane*. Ladies carry *pa·rasols* to keep o·ff the hot sun. At the theater and in other pu·b-

lic places where it gets hot and close, they use *fans* to fan themse·lves with.

## VII. The Human Body.

Every man has a head, a trunk (or bo·dy) and four limbs, unle·ss he's defo·rmed or a cripple.

The **head.** — The *skull* (or cra·nium) is co·vered with (black, dark, fair, light, sa·ndy, brown, che·stnut, a·uburn, red, gray or white) hair. When the hair falls o·ut and leaves the scalp partly unco·vered, a pe·rson is bald. A few ba·ld-headed men wear a wig made of so·mebody else's hair. The brain, in the ca·vity of the skull, rece·ives impre·ssions thru the ne·rvous sy·stem and is the seat of me·mory and the emo·tions and re·asoning fa·culties.

The fo·rehead, the eyes, the nose, the ears, the temples, the cheeks, the lips (the outsi·de part of the mouth) and the chin are all parts of the *face*. The two sides of the face are very se·ldom exa·ctly ali·ke (or pe·rfectly symme·trical).

The *eye* is the o·rgan of sight; it's a very de·licate o·rgan and is e·asily i·njured. Each e·yeball is held in its so·cket by mu·scles and prote·cted in front by the e·yelids. The i·ris (a ri·ng-shaped, co·lored band in front), contra·cting and expa·nding, re·gulates the size of the pu·pil (the round, bla·ck-looking spot where light is admi·tted to the eye). A row of hairs called e·yelashes grows out from the edge of each e·yelid, and there are hairy arches above the eyes called e·yebrows. A good many

people's e·yesight is bad, and they have to wear glasses; one-eyed persons are blind in one eye; blind men are blind in both eyes, either beca·use they were born that way or lost their e·yesight later thru (some) a·ccident or dise·ase.

The *nose* is the o·rgan of the sense of smell. The bridge of the nose is the upper part. The no·strils are the two o·penings.

The *mouth* is the o·pening betwe·en the jaws and betwe·en the upper and lower lip; it is used in talking and eating. Insi·de (of) the mouth there are 32 teeth (16 in each jaw — inci·sors, cani·nes and mo·lars); food is chewed with them befo·re it is swallowed. The tongue and pa·late are the o·rgans of taste; they make it po·ssible for us to tell what things taste like. The tongue, the hard pa·late, the soft pa·late, the teeth and the lips are also impo·rtant o·rgans of speech. So·me people, in spite of the fact that they have no orga·nic de·fect, can never speak at all; they are dumb (or mute). Pe·rsons with spe·ech-defe·cts are not able to speak readily (or to talk plain); they lisp or stutter or stammer.

The *ear* is the o·rgan of hearing. Some people have lost their hearing thru si·ckness (or dise·ase); they are deaf. Children born deaf o·rdinarily never learn to talk; they just grow u·p deaf and dumb and are called de·af-mutes. They can be taught to speak by pa·tient instru·ctors trained in phone·tics, but they can never learn to hear. The lower, soft,

fleshy part of the ear (the part e·arrings are fa·stened in) is the lobe the ear. Children someti·mes get their ears pulled when they misbeha·ve.

So·me people have a *dimple* in each cheek and someti·mes one in their chin, too.

Grown u·p men someti·mes wear *whiskers* (a full beard, chi·n-whiskers, a pointed Vandy·ke beard, si·de-whiskers, si·deburns) or a musta·che (on the upper lip), and once in a while you see a man with a goate·e (a pointed tuft of hair just under the edge of the lower lip) as well as a musta·che. The majo·rity shave every [other] day or get shaved at the barber's (or at the ba·rber-shop). Rich men have one of their se·rvants shave them, or else a re·gular barber comes and shaves them every morning (or once every so often). A great many men are very parti·cular about a·lways appe·aring in pu·blic clean shaved.

The *neck* conne·cts the head and the trunk. The throat is the front part of the neck, the nape of the neck the back part. Two pa·ssages lead down thru the throat: the wi·ndpipe commu·nicates with the lungs, and the gu·llet (or eso·phagus) carries the food down to the sto·mach. The upper end of the wi·ndpipe is the la·rynx, more or less clearly seen from the outsi·de as a lump known as the "Adam's apple." The vo·cal cords, vi·brating in the la·rynx, produ·ce the voice. At each side of the neck there is a shoulder with its (correspo·nding) sho·ulder-blade.

The **trunk** is made up of the chest, the waist, the a·bdomen and the back. The heart and the two lungs are in the chest. The sto·mach (a po·uchlike enla·rgement of the alime·ntary cana·l), the liver, the ki·dneys and the bo·wels (or inte·stines) are in the a·bdomen.

The **limbs** (or extre·mities) are joined to the body (or trunk); they are the two arms and the two legs. The parts of an arm are the upper arm, the e·lbow, the fo·rearm, the wrist and the hand (called a fist when it is closed ready to strike). We have five fingers on each hand: the thumb, the i·ndex-finger, the middle finger, the ri·ng-finger and the little finger. The fi·nger-nails are a horny prote·ction for the fi·nger-tips; they are clipped, filed or cut with a knife every now and then. The parts of each leg are the thigh, the knee, the shin, the calf, the a·nkle and the foot. Each foot has a heel, an i·nstep, a sole and five toes with to·e-nails. We work with our hands, feel with our fi·nger-tips, stand on our feet and walk and run with our legs and feet. We walk on ti·ptoe when we don't want people to hear us coming.

The hu·man body is not all flesh and blood. A fra·mework of bones, the *ske·leton,* exte·nds from the crown of the head to the soles of the feet, suppo·rting the soft ti·ssues and prote·cting the de·licate o·rgans from i·njury (or keeping them from getting hurt). The bones are covered with flesh (or muscles), and the flesh is covered by the skin.

Impre·ssions made on the body by the o·utside world are re·cognized and cla·ssified by the *five senses:* sight, hearing, smell, taste and touch (or feeling).

## VIII. Physical Defects and Sickness.

A sound mind in a sound body is the greatest of all blessings. What a pity it is that so many people have some *phy·sical de·fect* or are affli·cted with some dise·ase or other or a complica·tion of dise·ases. A bli·nd man or a bli·nd wo·man, a de·af-and-du·mb pe·rson (or de·af-mute), a sta·mmerer, a cripple (or lame pe·rson), a hu·mp-backed man, a o·ne-armed or a o·ne-eyed pe·rson, a cro·ss-eyed man or wo·man, a pe·rson with a wooden leg or one that has to walk on crutches, and a good many people with o·ther phy·sical de·fects are dese·rving of our considera·tion and sy·mpathy. It hurts their feelings when o·ther people are inconsi·derate enough to make fun of them and laugh at their infi·rmity, inste·ad of overlo·oking it.

There are ever so many di·fferent *dise·ases,* some of them tri·fling a·ilments, others quite se·rious. Some are conta·gious (or catching). There has been a good deal of si·ckness in our fa·mily la·tely. Nearly every one of us has been sick, and the do·ctor has been atte·nding us every day. A sister of mine, the next to the youngest, has been troubled with a cough for months; I beli·eve she's got whooping cough. Besi·des she's dre·adfully (or te·rribly or a·wfully) hoarse, so that she can hardly

speak (or talk) abo·ve a whisper. One of my older sisters suffers a good deal from to·othache and he·adaches. She looks very pale, too, and seems to be ane·mic. I don't know for ce·rtain (or for su·re) what's the matter with her; no kind of me·dicine seems to do her any good. Ye·sterday she had to take to her bed beca·use she had all the sy·mptoms of influe·nza (or the grippe).

My brother Fred (or Fre·derick) has been very poorly, too, for the last six weeks. He had the measles a couple of years ago, and no·w he's got the sca·rlet fever. Of course, he's confi·ned to his bed and qua·rantined to prevent infe·ction, for sca·rlet fever's a highly conta·gious dise·ase. He's had a pretty hard time of it, but he's getting better slowly. My father's laid u·p again with the rhe·umatism. You know, when wet weather sets i·n, he a·lways has to lie on a couch in the da·ytime, unle·ss the do·ctor insi·sts on him (or his) keeping his bed. After a week or so the pain leaves him for a while, but it soon comes ba·ck again. I don't think he'll ever get rid of that dise·ase; it seems to run in the fa·mily.

My gra·ndmother (fami·liarly: gra·ndma) has the a·sthma, as is often the case with old people, and she's su·bject to atta·cks of gi·ddiness (or ve·rtigo) besi·des. I don't think she'll live (or last) much longer. Uncle Tom (or Tho·mas) died two years ago· of the pa·lsy (from a stroke of a·poplexy). He had ha·d two· stro·kes befo·re and had been

pa·ralyzed for so·me ti·me; a half-hour after the third stroke he breathed his last.

As for myse·lf, I'm not very strong either. I catch cold very easily. It begi·ns with a cold in the head, and then I have a bad cough for a while and a feeling of so·reness about the chest. Someti·mes I su·ffer with an aching tooth, or I have a gu·m-boil, and my cheek's all swelled u·p. I think I have a deca·yed tooth with an a·bscess at the root of it. I hope it's not a wisdom-tooth, for I'm going to have the de·ntist pull it (o·ut). The other day, I got a stitch in my side by running too fast, and, to make matters worse, my nose bega·n to bleed. I'm hardly ever free from an a·ilment of some kind or other. But I have a good a·ppetite, and someti·mes I eat to·o much, espe·cially pie and fried things, tho I know they don't agre·e with me and a·lways give me an indige·stion (or a sour sto·mach).

Jack, one of my scho·olmates, had a real bad *a·ccident* the other day. He was picking cherries up in a che·rry-tree, when the limb he was sitting on broke, and he fell head over heels to the ground. It was too bad he broke his left [right] arm, put his sho·ulder out of joint (or di·slocated his sho·ulder) and sprained his a·nkle. His folks sent for the do·ctor (a su·rgeon), and the broken arm was set and the shoulder put back into place. The do·ctor put a plaster of Pa·ris ba·ndage on, after dressing the arm and shoulder. It was a good thing Jack didn't have to have his arm a·mputated. He carries

his arm in a sling now, and he'll have to stay in-do·ors for quite a while. The do·ctor hopes to get (or have) him all right again in about two weeks. I go to see him every afterno·on to keep him co·m-pany for an hour or so and cheer him up.

There are a good many *a·ilments* that I only know of by he·arsay (or know by name); I have never had them myse·lf. I don't think it would be very funny, for i·nstance, to be taken with a cramp, to have epile·ptic fits, to faint, to be af-fli·cted with dro·psy, to sprain my a·nkle, to have a sick he·adache or to suffer with chi·lblains in winter; and it's no fun, either, to have to swa·llow all sorts of vile (or na·sty) drugs (or me·dicines), powders, pills, ta·blets and ca·psules.

There are te·rrible *conta·gious dise·ases* and *epide·mics*, such as the Asia·tic cho·lera, sma·llpox, influe·nza (or the grippe) and consu·mption. A cho·lera epide·mic, for i·nstance, may carry off (or awa·y) tho·usands of persons in the prime of life. Consu·mption, the "white plague," is ge·nerally consi·dered to be the most insi·dious of a·ll dise·ases. So· far no depe·ndable drug tre·atment for tuberculo·sis has been disco·vered, but the dise·ase has been cured in its earliest stages by hygie·nic me·thods. Consu·mptives are incu·rable, tho, or doomed, once pneumo·nia (or inflamma·tion of the lungs) has set i·n. Sma·llpox is not as co·mmon no·w as it wa·s befo·re vaccina·tion was made compu·lsory. I've been va·ccinated twice (or two

times) with vacci·ne vi·rus, and it "took" both times. My pa·rents beli·eve in vaccina·tion, but I've heard o·ther people say (that) vaccina·tion is wo·rthless as a preve·ntive of sma·llpox or even da·ngerous. Lots of people die of diphthe·ria and typho·id fe·ver. Ca·ncer is a deadly dise·ase when disco·vered late, and a pa·inful one in its later stages.

In case of se·rious si·ckness people send for the *do·ctor*. Our fa·mily do·ctor (or physi·cian) has a good reputa·tion and a large pra·ctice. He doesn't beli·eve in prescri·bing drugs for every dise·ase. The first thing he does is to feel the pa·tient's pulse and look at his tongue. When he finds the tongue coated, he writes a prescri·ption to be filled by some dru·ggist (or pha·rmacist), or he may put up the me·dicine himse·lf in his own dispe·nsary. Do·ctors of the better class se·ldom dispe·nse their own me·dicines. A physi·cian's fees (or charges) vary acco·rding to the pa·tient's suppo·sed i·ncome. Quacks (or quack doctors or cha·rlatans) treat pa·tients and prete·nd to cure them, but they either have no scienti·fic me·dical kno·wledge or else impo·se on the sick by misu·sing it.

Pe·rsons su·ffering from dise·ases that requi·re spe·cial care they can't get at home are taken in an a·mbulance to a *ho·spital*, where they are atte·nded by a large staff of physi·cians, su·rgeons and (trained) nurses.

# Phrases about Health and Sickness.

| Questions. | Answers. |
|---|---|
| *1. Between two persons:* | |
| | (Good news:) |
| How a·re you? | Very well, thank you. |
| How a·re you today? | Quite well, thank you. |
| Do you feel well? | First rate, thanks |
| Ho·w are you ge·tting alo·ng? | All right. And ho·w are yo·u (or And ho·w's yourse·lf)? |
| How do you feel this morning? | Fairly well. — To·lerably well. |
| | (Bad news:) |
| How are you feeling this morning? | I feel rather dull (or li·feless). |
| Do you feel any better today? | No, I'm sorry to say, I don't. I'm very weak, and I have a splitting he·adache. |
| I hope you feel better today. | I'm just about the same. I'm still fe·verish, and I haven't any a·ppetite. |
| What's the matter with you? Are you sick? | Yes, I feel wre·tched. I'm so·re — and stiff a·ll o·ver. |
| You look so pale. Don't you feel well? | No, I'm no·t well; I'm feeling pretty shaky. |
| How's your ba·ckache? | Not any better yet; it's sti·ll as bad as e·ver. |
| You don't look well at all. What's wro·ng (What's the ma·tter) with you? | I don't exa·ctly know wha·t's the matter; I just feel mi·serable all over. |
| My, but you look well! How rosy your cheeks are! Have you got over your sick spell? | Not yet, I'm sorry to say. My looks (My rosy cheeks) beli·e me. I'm still su·ffering a great deal. |

*2. About the health of some person not present:*

How's your brother (sister, father, mother)?

Is your brother still poorly?

Does the pa·tient feel better today?

How are your folks all at home?

Ho·w's your fa·mily?

Are you all well at home?

Is Mr. X in good health?

How's Mr. —— getting along?

Is it so that your brother Jim (or James) has broken his right arm? So·mebody to·ld me he ha·d.

Your uncle doesn't look well at all; what's the matter with him?

Is the pa·tient out of da·nger?

**(Good news:)**

He's [She's] feeling pretty well, thank you.

He's as well now again as ever, thank you.

No, thank you, he's all right again now.

Yes, he's a good deal better. He'll soon be all right again.

They're all in good health, thank you.

They're (all) well, thank you.

Yes, we're all in good health, thank you.

**(Bad news:)**

No, he's not well at all.

Why, he's been sick for the last six weeks — poor man.

Yes, it's a fact. And it'll be about a month before he can use his hand and arm again.

That's hard to tell (or to say). He's been compla·ining of a pain in the lungs for quite a while. I'm afra·id he's got the consu·mption.

No, I don't think he is. A rela·pse might set i·n, and that would be the end of him quite li·kely.

*3. Phrases expressing sympathy with a patient:*

I'm very sorry to hear you don't feel well.
I hope you'll soon get over it.
I hope it'll not (or it won't) be a·nything se·rious.
You're sick, are you? No·thing se·rious, I hope.
You should consu·lt a do·ctor ri·ght awa·y (or at once).
Go and have yourse·lf exa·mined ca·refully.
Go and lie down right away; you seem to be re·ally sick.
You must take (better) ca·re of yourse·lf.
I hope you'll feel a little better when I come to see you tomo·rrow.
Cheer u·p! Don't lose co·urage! Keep u·p your co·urage!
Keep u·p your spi·rits!

*Early to bed and early to rise*
*Makes a man healthy and wealthy and wise.*
— *Benjamin Franklin.*

## IX. The Family.

Our *fa·mily* is an unu·sually large one. There are ni·ne of us in a·ll: father,[1] mother,[1] four sons (fami·liarly: boys) and three da·ughters (fami·liarly: girls). Both of my pa·rents are still living. My father is my mother's hu·sband, and my mother is my father's wife. They got (or were) married over thirty years ago. About five years ago· they ce·lebrated their silver wedding,[2] and I hope they will live long enough to ce·lebrate their golden wedding[2] and their di·amond wedding,[2] too.

[1] More fami·liarly, chi·ldren say *papa·*, *pa·pa*, *pop*, *pa*, *dad* or *da·ddy* and *mam(m)a·*, *ma·m(m)a*, or *ma*. *Pap* and *pa·ppy* are old-fa·shioned and co·untrified, as well as *mam* and *ma·mmy*.

[2] The twenty-fi·fth annive·rsary of a wedding is called the *silver wedding;* the fi·ftieth annive·rsary is the *golden wedding*; the se·venty-fi·fth is the *di·amond wedding*.

My first *name* (or given or Chri·stian name) is Ri·chard, but the folks at home and the boys at school all call me Dick (ni·ckname for Ri·chard). My middle name[1] is Ra·mbeau. My last name (or fa·mily name or su·rname) is Ga·rver. So my full name is Ri·chard Ra·mbeau Ga·rver. I'm the oldest of us children, but my younger brothers are all taller than I am. My youngest brother, Cha·rlie (or Charles), beats me by a whole head. Jim (or James), the one next to me·, is grown up and in bu·siness now.

Albert, the one next to Jim, a mi·schievous little fellow, still goes to school, and so· do two of my sisters, Jane and Maud. Maud is just a li·ttle girl; only a few years ago she was still a ba·by and had to have some one to dress her and take her out in the ba·by ca·rriage. My oldest sister, Ma·rgaret, and my fa·vorite, is two years younger than I am; she stays at home and makes herse·lf u·seful about the house, but she's going to leave us before long. For some time she's been enga·ged to a very nice man by the name of Berry; so he's her inte·nded (hu·sband). They are going to be (or get) married next month, and the·n her name will be Mrs. Berry. The enga·ged couple, of course, are very fond of each other; they seem to be well mated (or well suited to each other).

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[1] So·metimes — but not always — children are given their mother's *maiden name* (her fa·mily name befo·re she was married) for a middle name.

Besi·des the fa·mily proper there are two *se·rvants* belo·ng to our ho·usehold. We have a se·rvant (or maid or girl or se·rvant-girl)[1] to do the cooking, sweep the rooms and make the beds. We have a man, too, to look after the lawn and ga·rden and to drive our car and take care of it. We used to keep a span of spi·rited black horses. We have a full-blo·oded pug-dog with a short, thick nose; a fo·x-te·rrier; a [to·m-]cat; a cana·ry(-bird) and a pa·rrot that repe·ats words and phrases, sings a little and i·mitates va·rious sounds.

Our family is a very old one, and the number of rela·tions (or re·latives) we have is quite large. On my father's side we are of Pennsylva·nia Dutch desce·nt; we can trace our *a·ncestry* back to the Ge·rman pi·etists who came over to Pennsylva·nia from the Pala·tinate about two hu·ndred years ago. My great gra·ndfather fought under Wa·shington in the Revolu·tionary War (or the War of Indepe·ndence). My mother is a southern woman of a well-known Louisia·na cre·ole fa·mily. Her a·ncestors came over from France long before Napo·leon I (Napo·leon the First, Napo·leon Bo·naparte) · sold the te·rritory of Louisia·na to the United States. My gra·ndparents (gra·ndfather and gra·ndmother) on my father's side have been dead over thirty years now, but my gra·ndfather on my mother's side is still living down south. He lives in a fine

[1] A woman servant is called the *hired girl* in the country and in small towns; a fa·rm-hand is known as the *hired man.*

old planta·tion ma·nsion with a lot of o·il-pa·intings on the walls. Some of them are po·rtraits of our a·ncestors. They look rather queer in their old-fa·shioned style of dress, but all of them, I've been told, were able men and disti·nguished themse·lves in some way or other in their day.

I have two uncles, four aunts and in all about a do·zen co·usins; so·me of them are men (or boy) co·usins and so·me are women (or girl) co·usins. One of my aunts, Aunt Ba·rbara, has lost her hu·s-band, so she's a wi·dow now. Her children are my co·usins and my pa·rents' ne·phews and nieces; they are all *near rela·tions* of ours. But my gra·nd-father's co·usins are only *di·stant rela·tions* of mine. Some of my father's (first) co·usins have children; the children are my· se·cond co·usins.

A child that has lost its father and its mother is an o·rphan. Orphans have a gua·rdian unti·l they are 21 years old. When they are twe·nty-o·ne, all persons of either sex (male or fe·male) are *of age*.

When my oldest sister, Ma·rgaret, is married, her hu·sband, Mr. Arthur Berry, is going to be my bro·ther-in-law. My pa·rents will speak of Mr. Berry then as their so·n-in-law, and he· will refe·r to the·m as his fa·ther-in-law and mo·ther-in-law. Mo·ther-in-laws (puri·stic: mo·thers-in-law) are often disli·ked and dreaded; they have a reputa·-tion for interfe·ring too much in the fa·mily affa·irs of their so·n-in-laws. A he·npecked hu·sband is domine·ered over and contro·lled by his wife.

An uncle of mine, Uncle Fred (or Fre·derick), had been a wi·dower for years and years, but he married again not long ago. His se·cond wife is very kind to her ste·pchildren and treats them as an o·wn mother would. She is never harsh or unki·nd to them as ste·pmothers a·re someti·mes. My Aunt Ethel has never (got) married; so she's what people call an old maid or an unma·rried woman (or lady). Uncle He·nry has stayed single, too. He's an old ba·chelor and prefe·rs to keep o·n living that way. But Aunty Ethel and Uncle Henry are not the least bit gloomy or capri·cious, as unma·rried people are often said to be. On the co·ntrary they are well poised and che·erful.

Girls don't propo·se to young men, but they are suppo·sed to be allo·wed to do· so in le·ap-year just for a joke. It's the young man that propo·ses to the young woman and asks her to pro·mise to marry him. Each state has its own *ma·rriage and divo·rce laws,* and some people go from one state into another to be married or to get a divo·rce, acco·rding as the laws of the di·fferent states are fa·vorable or u·nfavorable. A young man to be married in the state of Pennsylva·nia must be 21, but in several of the other states a boy of 14 can marry a girl of 12, if they both have their pa·rents' conse·nt. The state of So·uth Caroli·na grants no divo·rces at all; in se·veral other states divo·rces are given on such easy grounds as cru·elty or habi·tual dru·nkenness to almost any one able to

pay a lawyer's fee and esta·blish a re·sidence of six months or a year in the state.

Enga·gements are very se·ldom made known in the ne·wspapers or by sending o·ut printed cards, but all re·latives and friends are info·rmed either pe·rsonally or by letter, and they offer their con-gratula·tions to the enga·ged couple. Soon after the *enga·gement* the man makes the wo·man he's enga·ged to a pre·sent of a di·amond ring; now and then a ring with some other pre·cious sto·ne or a pearl for a setting is given inste·ad. The enga·ge-ment ring is worn on the third finger of the left hand (the one next to the little finger). The man wears no enga·gement ring, but he is given so·me-thing else someti·mes for a token and pledge. An enga·gement is a le·gally binding co·ntract, and a man can be sued for "breach of pro·mise" in case he gives u·p the woman he's enga·ged to (or breaks the enga·gement).

The *wedding* takes place in the town where the lady has been living. The wedding pre·sents are displa·yed at the wedding. No pe·rson can be le·gally married witho·ut first secu·ring a ma·rriage li·cense from the o·ffice of the county clerk. A ma·rriage perfo·rmed by a mi·nister of reli·gion is just as va·lid as a ci·vil ma·rriage, and it is never ne·cessary to have both ce·remonies, as is the case in some other countries. The ce·remony can be perfo·rmed by a Ca·tholic priest, a Pro·testant mi·nister (or "preach-er"), a Jewish ra·bbi, or by a ju·stice of the peace.

Diploma·tic and co·nsular o·fficers of the United States are not a·uthorized to marry American ci·tizens in fo·reign co·untries.

The bride rece·ives a so·lid gold *we·dding-ring* during the ce·remony and wears it on the same finger with her enga·gement ring as long as she lives.

The *wedding dinner* fo·llows the ce·remony. It is not a·lways a very substa·ntial meal. Its place is often taken no·wadays by a rece·ption, espe·cially in the case of church weddings. A very esse·ntial part of the wedding dinner is the we·dding-cake. The bride cuts it, and e·verybody pre·sent is expe·cted to eat a piece, and pieces of it are sent to a·bsent friends and acqua·intances.

After the wedding is over, the newly married couple leave for their *ho·neymoon:* they spend the first month living in some other place or tra·veling.

All of this, of course, appli·es only to fo·rmal enga·gements and weddings among the class of people that stand a good deal on their di·gnity. A good many Americans with a dista·ste for show and ce·remony are married in a simple and qui·et way, often with no·body pre·sent but the few pe·rsons requi·red by the law as wi·tnesses.

The bride as a rule brings her hu·sband no *do·wry* in the United States. If she do·es, it's not ba·rgained for as one of the preli·minary condi·tions of the ma·rriage. She is only expe·cted to fu·rnish her o·wn li·nen and dresses and the linen for the new ho·usehold. It's the hu·sband's bu·siness to

suppo·rt his wife, and he's expe·cted to pay for everything else that'll be needed in keeping house, such as the fu·rniture, chi·naware and si·lverware. What the father gives his daughter depe·nds enti·rely on his discre·tion and good-will; the daughter in any case will inhe·rit her share of her father's esta·te at his death. She can hold her own pro·perty in her own name and dispo·se of it witho·ut her hu·sband's kno·wledge or conse·nt. Most pro·perty o·wners make a will (le·gally: last will and te·stament) leaving all their pro·perty to the wife and, after her death, to the children in e·qual po·rtions.

Sooner or later *death* knocks at every man's door. The corpse or (dead) body is first laid o·ut and a·fterwards put into a ca·sket (or co·ffin), to be bu·ried after being kept about two days.

If the dead man was a me·mber of some se·cret soci·ety, his lodge heads the *fu·neral proce·ssion.* Next come the pa·ll-bearers, the hearse and the family and friends. The cle·rgyman rides either in one of the same ca·rriages with the pa·ll-bearers or else with the fa·mily. The proce·ssion forms at the house of the dead pe·rson and proce·eds to the church and from there to the ce·metery (in the country: gra·veyard).

The *fu·neral se·rvice* is condu·cted in the church by a priest or mi·nister, or someti·mes at the home of the dead pe·rson or in a "fu·neral home" or an u·ndertaking pa·rlor. There is a brief se·rvice at the grave, too. The se·xton (or ja·nitor) tolls the fu·neral bell at the church.

The me·mbers of the fa·mily and near re·latives are suppo·sed to wear *mourning* (dress in black) for a year or six months, but most people are not very strict about it.

It's the cu·stom to a have a gra·nite or marble *mo·nument* or a to·mbstone or a cross set u·p on the grave in me·mory of the dead. The e·pitaph (or inscri·ption) on it begi·ns with the words: "In Me·mory of ——" or "To the Me·mory of ——" or "Sa·cred to the Me·mory of ——." Plants and flowers are often planted on the grave.

Most people have a pre·judice aga·inst *crema·tion*. Others, tho, would rather be cre·mated than to be bu·ried in the ground and leave expre·ss instru·c-tions to that effe·ct in their will. There are a good many cre·matories in opera·tion in the United States. The charge for cre·mating a body is about $40. It takes about an hour to cre·mate the corpse of a grown u·p person. The pe·rfectly white ashes are put into an urn.

Now and then we hear of so·mebody that only seemed to be dead being a·ctually *bu·ried ali·ve*. Someti·mes the suppo·sed dead man revi·ves at the fu·neral, just in time to save his life. To keep such things from happening, bu·rial permi·ts are only i·ssued by the autho·rities on presenta·tion of a death certi·ficate signed by a pra·cticing physi·cian.

## X. Education.

The American *sy·stem of pu·blic educa·tion* inclu·des pri·mary (or eleme·ntary), se·condary and

profe·ssional schools. The ma·nagement of the pu·blic schools is in the hands of the states and lo·cal autho·rities. The i·ncome from pu·blic lands and dire·ct taxes le·vied on re·al esta·te and pe·rsonal pro·perty fu·rnish the funds for their suppo·rt.

Pri·mary instru·ction is *free* in all (of) the states and compu·lsory in most of them. Se·condary instru·ction is free, too, but not compu·lsory; or, at any rate, the laws requi·ring the atte·ndance of children at school are not enfo·rced stri·ctly in the case of older children. Higher educa·tion in the state co·lleges and unive·rsities is provi·ded free in some of the states and in others from $10 to $150 a year is charged for tui·tion.

In most of the states each county is su·bdivided for school pu·rposes into school di·stricts, and there is an eleme·ntary school, called a *di·strict school,* in every school di·strict. Such a school has only one teacher and one cla·ss-room u·sually and is lo·cated out in the country.

The *graded schools* (or gra·mmar-schools) are the pri·mary schools of the towns; they o·ccupy big bu·ildings built spe·cially for the pu·rpose, with a se·parate cla·ss-room for each of the eight grades and a se·parate teacher in each room. Each grade represe·nts a year's work. Children start going to school when they are six years old, tho a few may perha·ps have atte·nded a ki·ndergarten befo·re that time. They begi·n with the first grade, and they fi·nish the eighth grade eight years later.

The su·bjects taught in the co·mmon schools (di·strict and graded schools) are called *co·mmon school branches.* They inclu·de gra·mmar, composi·tion, reading, writing, spelling, ari·thmetic, geo·graphy, United States hi·story, ci·vics, singing, drawing and eleme·ntary sci·ence (inclu·ding physio·logy and hy·giene). The school hours, as a rule, are from 9 to 12 and from 1 to 4, with a re·cess of 15 mi·nutes in the middle of the fo·renoon and ano·ther in the middle of the a·fternoon. The children run o·ut and play on the pla·yground at re·cess. There is no school on Sa·turday(s) or Su·nday(s) or le·gal ho·lidays.

The two sexes are e·ducated se·parately to some exte·nt, espe·cially in pri·vate schools for eleme·ntary and se·condary instru·ction, but *co·educa·tion* is the sy·stem ge·nerally fo·llowed in the pu·blic schools, as well as in pri·vate institu·tions for higher educa·tion.

American boys and girls get thru "the grades" at the age of fourte·en. The·n they have four years of se·condary study ahead of them in some muni·cipal *high school* or else in some pri·vate *aca·demy.* The high schools teach la·nguages (English, La·tin, Ge·rman and someti·mes French and Spa·nish), sci·ence (che·mistry, phy·sics and bio·logy), hi·story (a·ncient, medie·val, mo·dern and United States), mathema·tics (a·lgebra, geo·metry), bu·siness branches (bo·okkeeping, sho·rthand, ty·pewriting), ma·nual training (wood and me·tal work-

ing), dome·stic sci·ence (cooking and sewing, for the girls), drawing and mu·sic. Some of the su·bjects are ele·ctives. In most high schools none of the pu·pils have to study La·tin, for i·nstance, unle·ss they want to.

Gra·duates of accre·dited high schools are admi·tted to the *co·lleges* and *unive·rsities* witho·ut taking the e·ntrance examina·tion other a·pplicants must pass befo·re they can matri·culate. There are about 500 co·lleges in the United States. Nearly all of them are pri·vate institu·tions. They confe·r the ba·chelor's degre·e on stu·dents who have comple·ted the four years' course of study succe·ssfully. There is a state unive·rsity in nearly every state of the union. Pri·vate unive·rsities are espe·cially co·mmon in the e·astern states. There are about 15 stri·ctly fi·rst-cla·ss unive·rsities in the United States, and about 20 more that are good. The rest of them don't amo·unt to much, and there are even some so-ca·lled unive·rsities that are no·thing but co·lleges in rea·lity and only offer courses leading u·p to the ba·chelor's degre·e. The largest American unive·rsities have 20,000 to 35,000 stu·dents each; there are about 35 with more than 5,000 students. The number of stu·dents incre·ases from year to year.

The unive·rsities are compo·sed of a number of *fa·culties* or schools that prepa·re young men and wo·men to take u·p some profe·ssion or other. There are schools of theo·logy, law, me·dicine

(a·llopathic and ho·meopathic), pha·rmacy, de·ntistry (or de·ntal su·rgery), engine·ering, fine arts and educa·tion. The number of fa·culties varies in the di·fferent institu·tions. There is a colle·giate depa·rtment, too, and a gra·duate school.

The *colle·giate depa·rtment* (or co·llege of li·beral arts or arts depa·rtment) is a re·gular co·llege mainta·ined as a part of the unive·rsity. Its o·bject is ge·neral educa·tion, and the studies pursu·ed in it lead u·p to the ba·chelor's degre·e. But the great majo·rity of unive·rsity stu·dents are matri·culated in the profe·ssional schools and in the gra·duate school.

The *gra·duate school* is for (post)gra·duate students who have alre·ady gra·duated from some co·llege with the ba·chelor's degre·e. It corresponds to the fa·culties of sci·ence and letters (or philo·sophy) in fo·reign unive·rsities. After a spe·cial examina·tion and the presenta·tion of a the·sis (or disserta·tion) showing capa·city for scienti·fic rese·arch (or investiga·tion), the master's degre·e is confe·rred for one year's work and the do·ctor's[1] degre·e for four years' work.

[1] Pe·rsons with a me·dical degre·e (physi·cians, de·ntists and veterina·rians) call themse·lves *Do·ctor So·-and-So* and expe·ct o·ther people to do the sa·me. Men who have some o·ther kind of a do·ctor's degree (doctor of sci·ences, doctor of letters, doctor of laws, doctor of philo·sophy) are someti·mes called *do·ctor* also, espe·cially around the co·lleges and unive·rsities, but they don't call themse·lves *do·ctor,* and they don't consi·dèr it a slight if other people addre·ss them as *mi·ster.*

The ba·chelor's degre·e is only requi·red for *matricula·tion* in the gra·duate school; the profe·ssional schools of the unive·rsities, with a few exce·ptions, are open to hi·gh-school gra·duates.[1]

Acade·mic *degre·es* are confe·rred by autho·rity of the state, de·legated to the institu·tion in its charter. Ho·norary degre·es are confe·rred on pe·rsons who have disti·nguished themse·lves in some way.[2]

The loca·tion prefe·rred for American co·lleges and unive·rsities is on the o·utskirts of some rather

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[1] The ba·chelor's degre·e represe·nts a greater amo·unt of work and, to some exte·nt, a higher grade of work here in the United States than in most of the other countries of the world. That's why a hi·gh-school educa·tion is acce·pted ge·nerally as suffi·cient prepara·tion for unive·rsity work. Gra·duates of high schools are about 18 years old when they matri·culate in the unive·rsities; if they had to have their ba·chelor's diplo·ma first, they would be 22 at the time they bega·n their profe·ssional studies and 26 by the time they got thru.

[2] The va·lue of a degre·e depe·nds to some exte·nt on what co·llege or unive·rsity confe·rs it, for there is a great lack of unifo·rmity in the di·fferent educa·tional institu·tions, and so·me are more ri·gorous than o·thers in their requi·rements. A degre·e can not be put to any impo·rtant use witho·ut stating where it was obta·ined. Informa·tion to the effe·ct that acade·mic degre·es are sold in the United States for a considera·tion is circula·ted in some fo·reign countries, and a few people are cre·dulous enough to beli·eve it. There ma·y be a few swindlers selling bo·gus diplo·mas to i·gnorant people, just as there are crooks that make their living by selling "gold bricks" or by forging notes or by getting wo·rthless checks cashed—till they get caught at it. Such a diplo·ma, in any case, would be of no va·lue to the unfo·rtunate pu·rchaser.

small city. The *ca·mpus* is ge·nerally a pretty large plot of ground, with open spaces and grass and trees betwe·en the bu·ildings, like a park.

The *instru·ction* in Ame·rican co·lleges and unive·rsities is given partly by means of le·ssons prepa·red from te·xtbooks and reci·ted in class and partly by means of le·ctures. The le·cture courses are su·pplemented by reading in the li·brary or by la·boratory work. Each stu·dent has three classes a day, as a rule, and he's expe·cted to devo·te three hours a day to each of them — one hour in the recita·tion room or le·cture room and two hours of study or la·boratory work.

There are written or o·ral *quizzes* (or tests) at i·ntervals during each course and a written *examina·tion* (slang: exa·m) in each su·bject at the end of the term or seme·ster, given by the profe·ssor or instru·ctor in charge of the course. Whether a stu·dent passes or fails (slang: flunks) depe·nds partly on the examina·tion at the end of the course and partly on his daily marks and quiz grades. A student that "flunks" uncondi·tionally has to take the course o·ver again; if he is "condi·tioned," he fails to pass, but has a right to study u·p by himself (or pri·vately) or get some one to coach him and take ano·ther examina·tion later. There is no spe·cial examina·tion for the ba·chelor's degre·e, but there i·s for the higher degre·es.

So·me of the stu·dents have a scho·larship or a fe·llowship. The *scho·lars* rece·ive free tui·tion or

else enough mo·ney to pay their tui·tion with. The *fe·llows* in American unive·rsities are paid about $500 a year and they are ge·nerally expe·cted to teach one class a day in the colle·giate depa·rtment, in addi·tion to their work as stu·dents. The scho·lars and espe·cially the fe·llows are unu·sually bright and clever stu·dents, and they are expe·cted to set the pace for the rest of the stu·dent body and keep u·p the sta·ndard of scho·larship.

The *acade·mic year* begi·ns in Septe·mber and ends in June with the confe·rring of degre·es and distribu·tion of diplo·mas on "comme·ncement" day. The members of the gra·duating class in so·me co·lleges and unive·rsities wear a (mo·rtarboard) cap and (a long, black) gown at comme·ncement. The year is divi·ded either into three terms or else into two seme·sters. There is a summer school (or summer se·ssion), besi·des, during the summer vaca·tion for the be·nefit of stu·dents with defi·ciencies to make u·p and for those that want to cut down the time ne·cessary to get their degre·e. Pri·mary and se·condary teachers study in the summer schools, too.

The o·ld-style co·llege curri·culum (or course of studies) was made u·p of a de·finite list of su·bjects that every ca·ndidate for the ba·chelor's degre·e ha·d to ta·ke. Since then, the *ele·ctive system* has been ado·pted, and stu·dents are allo·wed to choose the su·bjects they prefe·r, with ce·rtain restri·ctions.[1]

[1] So it happens that American undergra·duates working

In all higher schools with a four years' course of studies (high schools, co·lleges and profe·ssional schools) the stu·dents are called *fre·shmen* in their first year, *so·phomores* the next year, *ju·niors* the third year and *se·niors* the last year.

Hi·gh-school stu·dents live at home with their pa·rents; they go to (or atte·nd) the high school in their own town (or home town). Co·llege and unive·rsity stu·dents go away from home and study ge·nerally in some other town. They room in pri·vate houses, often two in a room (ro·ommates), and board in stu·dents' co-o·perative boarding clubs or in pri·vate houses or at the re·staurants. So·me co·lleges and unive·rsities have large buildings called *do·rmitories*, where stu·dents can rent rooms, if they like, and a few have a *co·mmons*, a large hall where meals are served to hu·ndreds of stu·dents

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for their ba·chelor's degre·e spe·cialize a good deal, and they are often doing about the same kind of work, in fact, as is done by gra·duate stu·dents in Europe·an unive·rsities working for their do·ctor's degre·e. The colle·giate depa·rtment in the large unive·rsities offers an ama·zing vari·ety of courses to choose from. It is po·ssible for an Ame·rican undergra·duate to ele·ct courses in such su·bjects as socio·logy, experime·ntal psycho·logy, bacterio·logy, mi·neral ana·lysis, geo·logy, interna·tional law, the hi·story of reli·gions, the philo·sophy of hi·story, archeo·logy, anthropo·logy, phone·tics, Arabic, Go·thic, Sa·nskrit, Norwe·gian or Portugue·se. He may spe·cialize by taking as many as 20 di·fferent courses in a single su·bject, such as Ge·rman or che·mistry. As a rule, tho, stu·dents sele·ct a pretty well-ba·lanced combina·tion of studies, keeping in mind their indivi·dual needs and pre·ferences.

in one room at the same time by stu·dent waiters. A good many stu·dents suppo·rt themse·lves by doing some kind of work for a couple of hours each day during the school year and by working all thru the summer vaca·tion.

Enthu·siasm makes plenty of co·llege spi·rit and co·llege life in the United States. With the ri·valry that is displa·yed between the di·fferent co·lleges and unive·rsities, every stu·dent and alu·mnus (former stu·dent who has gra·duated) stands up for his *a·lma ma·ter*. Every co·llege and unive·rsity has a disti·nctive yell and its co·lors and co·llege songs. The stu·dents mainta·in deba·ting clubs (or li·terary soci·eties), also mu·sical organiza·tions (glee clubs, ma·ndolin clubs) and drama·tic clubs (for a·mateur thea·tricals). Intercolle·giate deba·tes and orato·rical co·ntests are held. Stu·dents show an enthusia·stic atta·chment for their co·llege.

For enco·uraging sociabi·lity among the stu·dent body, a few of the unive·rsities have a kind of clu·b-house, called the *Union*, open to all the stu·dents.

Nu·merous se·cret frate·rnal soci·eties exi·st also among the stu·dents: the *Greek letter frate·rnities* and soro·rities. They are very exclu·sive, and no one can join any of them without being asked to (or "pledged") first. They are called Greek letter frate·rnities because their names and e·mblems are compo·sed of letters of the Greek a·lphabet. Some of the pri·ncipal ones, for i·nstance, are called the Be·ta The·ta Pi Frate·rnity (*ΒΘΠ*), the Ka·ppa

Si·gma Frate·rnity (*ΚΣ*) and the Phi Ga·mma Delta Frate·rnity (*ΦΓΔ*). Frate·rnities and soro·rities ge·nerally have a na·tional organiza·tion, with branches called chapters in va·rious co·lleges and unive·rsities. Some of them have nearly a hu·ndred chapters. Frate·rnity men and soro·rity wo·men live in their chapter house; they sleep there, have their meals there and do their studying there.

A good deal of atte·ntion is given to *athle·tics*. Every co·llege and unive·rsity has an athle·tic field and a gymna·sium, a large building devo·ted to systema·tic i·ndoor e·xercise with appara·tus. The athle·tic field is used for o·utdoor sports: fo·otball in the fall months and track and field athle·tics in the spring. At intercolle·giate fo·otball and ba·seball games every stu·dent wears the co·lors of his co·llege, and the "rooters" cheer on their team with their co·llege yell and other more or less outla·ndish yells.

Most of the co·lleges and te·chnical schools of the United States are *pri·vate institu·tions*. But it should not be suppo·sed that they are o·rganized to make money; their aim is rather philanthro·pic, with a few exce·ptions, and they exi·st for the public good. A good many of them were founded and are mainta·ined by reli·gious bodies.

Nearly all American co·lleges and unive·rsities, state institu·tions inclu·ded, have an *endo·wment fund*, consi·sting of mo·ney rece·ived as gifts or beque·sts from their friends and inve·sted in real esta·te and secu·rities (stocks and bonds). The

i·ncome from the endo·wment fund is used to help (to) pay the cu·rrent expe·nses of the institu·tion. There are nearly a hu·ndred educa·tional institu·tions in the United States that own at least two mi·llion do·llars' worth of pro·perty each, besi·des their bui·ldings, grounds and equi·pment.

The United States Mi·litary Aca·demy lo·cated at West Point, N. Y., and the United States Na·val Aca·demy at Anna·polis, Ma·ryland, are go·vernment schools for training o·fficers for the a·rmy and na·vy. Instru·ction is given in co·llege su·bjects, and spe·cial atte·ntion is paid to mathema·tics, *mi·litary studies* and naviga·tion. It is not easy to get to go to "West Point"[1] or "Anna·polis," and a large part of the young men admi·tted never succe·ed in passing their examina·tions. The di·scipline is exce·edingly strict, even more so than in the a·rmy itse·lf.

The nu·mberless pri·vate *mi·litary aca·demies* sca·ttered over the country should not be confo·unded with West Point. They are only pri·vate boarding schools for boys. Their o·bject is to prepa·re boys to enter co·llege. Their cade·ts are not inte·nding to be a·rmy o·fficers, but they wear a u·niform and have mi·litary drill. A few of the best of them, tho, are given commi·ssions in the re·gular a·rmy later.

[1] The name of the town where an educa·tional institu·tion is lo·cated is someti·mes used in place of the offi·cial name of the school. The United States Mi·litary. Aca·demy is nearly a·lways refe·rred to simply as "West Point."

There are *teachers' co·lleges* in conne·ction with some of the unive·rsities for the training of teachers, espe·cially for the se·condary schools. The state go·vernments mainta·in *no·rmal schools* with te·chnical instru·ction in pe·dagogic and rela·ted su·bjects to train (or prepa·re) teachers for the eleme·ntary schools. Their stu·dents are mostly young women. Not many men take up that profe·ssion.

Instru·ction by mail is given by the *correspo·ndence schools,* espe·cially in te·chnical and bu·siness branches. They are mo·ney-making e·nterprises, and their instru·ction is of do·ubtful va·lue; they are not a·uthorized to confe·r degre·es. There are *bu·siness co·lleges* in all cities of any impo·rtance for training bo·okkeepers and steno·graphers and *tra·de-schools* for barbers, printers, photoengra·vers, wa·tchmakers and bri·cklayers.

## XI. Earning a Living.

The *idle rich* take no part in the world's work; in fact, they consi·der u·seful work bene·ath their di·gnity. Not all Americans reti·re from a·ctive life, tho, when they have made their mark and their "pile" (accu·mulated a large fo·rtune); some of them prefe·r to keep on making mo·ney, espe·cially "self-made" men, who got most of their educa·tion without going to school and worked their way u·p from the very bo·ttom. Very few rich men, tho, are enga·ged in a·ctual produ·ction. Manufa·cturing

and transporta·tion are carried on no·wadays by inco·rporated co·mpanies, and a ca·pitalist with a big block of stock in some corpora·tion may have his say at the a·nnual sto·ckholders' meeting and at the meetings of the board of dire·ctors, if he happens to be a dire·ctor, but the a·ctual ma·nagement of the e·nterprise is in the hands of hired superinte·ndents and ma·nagers.

America is noted for its *mi·llionaires* — there are over 40,000 of them — and its mi·llionaires are noted for their genero·sity. Mi·llions and mi·llions of do·llars are given every year to li·braries, co·lleges, unive·rsities, muse·ums, ho·spitals and churches. But not every one can be a mi·llionaire or even a sma·ll ca·pitalist. Most people have to earn their living by working for a sa·lary or wages or by re·ndering profe·ssional se·rvices in retu·rn for fees, and they have no "mo·ney to burn" (or to thro·w away).

Men in the learned professions have gone thru a course of spe·cial educa·tion to fit them for their work. Stri·ctly speaking, *profe·ssional men* are mi·nisters of reli·gion (priests, preachers[1] and ra·bbis), la·wyers (atto·rneys and judges) and do·ctors (physi·cians, su·rgeons, de·ntists and veterina·rians). In a more ge·neral sense a·lmost a·ny person doing

[1] A pro·testant pa·stor is also called a mi·nister, a more di·gnified and less co·mmonplace name than preacher. In the diploma·tic se·rvice a mi·nister is a di·plomat in charge of a lega·tion, ranking below an amba·ssador in charge of an e·mbassy.

work requi·ring univer·sity training may be consi·dered a profe·ssional man.

The pri·ncipal *bu·siness men* are who·lesale me·rchants, re·tail sto·rekeepers, pu·blishers (who have books printed in a pri·nting office and bound in a bi·ndery and sell them at wholesale), brokers (who buy and sell grain and provi·sion fu·tures and stocks and bonds on commi·ssion), bankers (who rece·ive mo·ney on depo·sit and loan it o·ut again to other people at i·nterest), insu·rance a·gents, real esta·te a·gents (who sell farms and houses and lots for other people), ga·ragemen (who store and care for other people's autos in large pu·blic ga·rages) and u·ndertakers (who take charge of condu·cting fu·nerals). Everybody that makes his living in some such way is "in bu·siness." Some fail in bu·siness, and some succe·ed.

The corpora·tions and bu·siness houses have ma·nagers, superinte·ndents, clerks, bo·okkeepers, sa·lesmen and other *emplo·yees*. Hu·ndreds of tho·usands of other men and wo·men are emplo·yed in the ci·vil se·rvice and in the mi·litary se·rvice of the United States.

Some people who are good talkers and have persona·lity, tact, e·nergy and perseve·rance, with the abi·lity to me·et people, gra·vitate into *sa·lesmanship* as a calling. They have the abi·lity to i·nfluence and persua·de people to buy things they would not o·therwise buy or to buy of a firm they would not o·therwise pa·tronize. Some of the best of them

are promo·ters for large corpora·tions. Some are tra·veling sa·lesmen (or drummers) who sell goods at who·lesale for the manufa·cturers and who·lesale houses (or jobbers). Others sell bonds, insu·rance, building lots, printing, ele·ctric signs, automo·biles or machi·nery.

Ho·use-to-ho·use *ca·nvassers* (or soli·citors) are a somewha·t lower order of sa·lesmen. Going from door to door, they soli·cit re·tail orders for deli·very later for such things as silk stockings, brushes, alu·minum ware, ele·ctrical appli·ances, ste·reoscopes and stereosco·pic views, magazi·ne subscri·ptions and books ("bo·ok-agents"). They work for a commi·ssion (or on commi·ssion): they get a perce·ntage on their sales. A good many se·lf-suppo·rting stu·dents earn eno·ugh mo·ney by ca·nvassing during the summer vaca·tion to pay their expe·nses thru the rest of the year while they are in college.

*Peddlers* sell also from ho·use to ho·use and on the streets, but they carry their goods with them and sell outri·ght witho·ut taking orders to be deli·vered later. They ge·nerally have to have a muni·cipal li·cense to do bu·siness.

The *trades* inclu·de occupa·tions where skilled la·bor, trained by an appre·nticeship, is needed. It takes se·veral years ge·nerally to learn a trade well. Appre·ntices draw wages while they are learning, but they earn a good deal more once they are jo·urneymen.

The *bu·ilding trades* inclu·de ca·rpenters (whose work is to build frame houses with lumber and put in the wooden parts of brick and stone houses), bri·cklayers (men who build u·p walls with bricks), ho·dcarriers (men who carry bricks and mo·rtar to the bri·cklayers in a hod), sto·ne-cutters (who cut stones into shape for bu·ilding pu·rposes) and ma·sons (who put the stones into place in the wall with a tro·wel and mo·rtar). A plumber puts in the wa·ter-pipes and the ba·thtubs and to·ilet fi·xtures. Pla·sterers give the walls and ceilings a coating of plaster with a trowel. Once the house is built, painters come and paint or va·rnish the wo·odwork, and pa·per-hangers (or de·corators) paste wa·ll-paper on the walls and ca·lcimine the ceilings.

In the *printing trades* there are printers (ty·pesetters or compo·sitors, pre·ssmen, li·notype o·perators and pro·of-readers), engra·vers, ele·ctrotypers, ste·reotypers, litho·graphers and bo·okbinders.

Bla·cksmiths, machi·nists, whe·elwrights, bridge builders, ti·nsmiths, ta·ilors, millers, bakers and barbers work at other trades. "Every one to his trade." Men work at their trades in the mines, mills, shops and fa·ctories.

Manufa·cturers have *machi·nes* (or machi·nery) as a rule now to do the greater part of the work. The inve·ntion of la·bor-saving machi·nery always gives the trades a hard blow. Shoes, watches and locks, for i·nstance, are made now by machi·nery

in large fa·ctories, and sho·emakers, wa·tchmakers and lo·cksmiths have nothing but repai·r-work to do. Bla·cksmiths don't have as much work either; they used to make a good many things that are bought now fa·ctory made; they even use re·ady-made ho·rseshoes and ho·rseshoe-nails themse·lves, inste·ad of making their own by hand.

Coopers make ba·rrels; or they used to, at any rate. So·me of them have been driven out of the trade by ba·rrel-making machi·nery. Gla·ss-blowing was consi·dered one of the most indepe·ndent and best-paid trades unti·l a few years ago. No·w, the gla·ss-blowers have a me·rciless compe·titor — an extre·mely co·mplicated and i·nteresting-looking *automa·tic machi·ne* that turns out a steady stream of fi·nished bottles from early Mo·nday morning till late Sa·turday night, a mi·llion bottles a week, with no further atte·ntion than supplying it with power and mate·rial.

In Europe there are still *small shops* where such a·rticles as cu·tlery, hats and gloves are made in small qua·ntities by hand and sold dire·ct to the consu·mers. In the southern repu·blics of Ame·rica, there are shops where shoes, matches, fi·reworks, si·lversmiths' goods and alime·ntary pastes are made and sold in the same way. The sy·stem of manufa·cturing such a·rticles in small shops has disappe·ared in the United States with the evolu·tion of fa·ctory i·ndustry. Cheap and ra·pid transporta·tion has o·pened up a world-wide market.

Fa·ctory workers and a·rtisans in their shops work under the o·versight of a fo·reman. Some of the *fa·ctory hands* tend the machi·nes; o·thers have sorting, asse·mbling or fi·nishing to do by hand. So·me of them have pi·ece-work, and their pay depe·nds on the amo·unt of work they get done; o·thers have ti·me-work and their wages are paid by the hour, day or week. When pa·y-day comes aro·und, the hands get their wages (or pay). They are given a check on some bank or an e·nvelope conta·ining the amo·unt of their pay in cash.

Most of the skilled workers are o·rganized into *tra·de-unions,* with the o·bject of fighting for higher wages, shorter hours and better working condi·-tions. The fi·ve-day week of 40 hours' work or less is now the goal of o·rganized la·bor. The fa·mous e·ight-hour day (48-hour week) that la·bor struggled for so long and so hard has been left behi·nd. Most of the u·nions have so·mething better than that at pre·sent and the no·n-union emplo·yers who once oppo·sed the 48-hour week so bitterly now find themse·lves defe·nding it rather .than grant further conce·ssions. Organized la·bor and its friends bo·ycott the pro·ducts of emplo·yers un-fa·ir to u·nion la·bor. Union-made a·rticles have the union la·bel on them, so that the pu·blic may know that they were made by o·rganized working men, emplo·yed under proper sa·nitary condi·tions and at de·cent wages.

In the large cities *wages* are higher than in the small towns, but so are living expe·nses. The best wages are not paid in the eastern or southern states. Some of the best paid union men in fa·vorable loca·lities have succe·eded in raising their wages to $10 or $12 a day, but the great majo·rity of working men are not as well paid as that.

When the u·nions are dissa·tisfied and una·ble to get their emplo·yers to come to terms, they may vote to quit work in a body and go out on *strike.* Men that keep on working or take the places of strikers are called scabs; they scab on the strikers.

Since the inve·ntion of la·bor-saving machi·nery, *women and children* have taken the place of skilled hand workers to a large extent in the fa·ctories. Machi·nes do the hard work and can ge·nerally be ma·naged about as well by wo·men or children as by men, and wo·men and children can be hired at lower wages. The co·tton-mills of the South and the co·al-mines emplo·y a good deal of child la·bor. Emplo·ying child labor is aga·inst the law in some of the states.

*Da·y-la·borers* are not as well off as fa·ctory hands and a·rtisans. They work where·ver they can find a job for a couple of days and live from hand to mouth. They are uno·rganized and unski·lled la·bor.

Some people have steady work the year round, and they don't need to worry about unemplo·yment. But it's no fun to be out of work and have to walk the streets *looking for a job* and not find a

thing to do a·nywhere. Ma·nual la·borers, fa·ctory hands and skilled la·bor to some exte·nt apply· right on the job for work, making the rounds of the va·rious shops and fa·ctories. They see the fo·reman or superinte·ndent about it or else they apply· at the o·ffice. Where they find a sign hung out "No Help Wanted" they can pass o·n (or pass by·) witho·ut going i·n. In some of the o·rganized trades the men apply· at the headqua·rters of the u·nion for work.

Lots of people find situa·tions thru the *cla·ssified adverti·sements* (or "want ads") printed in the daily papers or in trade jo·urnals or te·chnical publica·tions. There are also *emplo·yment a·gencies* that charge a fee or commi·ssion for secu·ring a posi·tion, and some of the states mainta·in free pu·blic emplo·yment a·gencies.

## XII. Elementary Arithmetic.

First of all we learned the ten di·gits (or fi·gures): 0123456789 (0 is called ze·ro, naught or a ci·pher). Once we were able to read numbers (o·ff) and to write them (do·wn), we were taught addi·tion, subtra·ction, multiplica·tion and divi·sion. Afterwards we learned fra·ctions, too.

**Addition** is the pro·cess of finding the sum of two or more (given) numbers. For i·nstance, three and four are seven, or three plus four e·qual seven ($3 + 4 = 7$).

*Exa·mple:* Add together 471, 54 and 39.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| *Pro·cess:* | 471 | 9 and 4 are 13, and 1 are 14; (put down 4 and carry 1;) 1 and 3 are 4, and 5 are 9, and 7 are 16; (put down 6 and carry 1;) 1 and 4 are 5; (put down the 5). |
| | 54 | |
| | 39 | |
| Sum (or to·tal): | 564 | |

The *a·nswer* (or *sum* or *to·tal*) is 564.

**Subtraction** is the pro·cess of finding the di·fference betwe·en two (given) numbers.

*Exa·mple:* Subtra·ct 4873 from 8309.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| *Pro·cess:* | 8309 | 3 from 9 (leaves) 6; 7 from 10, 3; 8 from 12, 4 (or 9 from 13, 4); 4 from 7, 3 (or 5 from 8, 3). |
| | 4873 | |
| Rema·inder: | 3436 | |

The *rema·inder* is 3436.

**Multiplication** is a short form of addi·tion, when the sum (or pro·duct) of a se·ries of repeti·tions of the same number is to be found. A kno·wledge of the multiplica·tion table is ne·cessary.

*Exa·mple:* Mu·ltiply 234 by 56.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| *Pro·cess:* | 234 | 6 times 4 are 24; (put down 4 and carry 2;) 6 times 3 are 18, and 2 are 20 ($6 \times 3 = 18 + 2 = 20$); (put down 0 and carry 2;) 6 times 2 are 12, and 2 are 14 ($6 \times 2 = 12 + 2 = 14$); and so· on. |
| | 56 | |
| | 1404 | |
| | 1170 | |
| Pro·duct: | 13104 | |

234 and 56 are *fa·ctors* of 13104.

**Division** is the pro·cess of finding (o·ut) how many times o·ne number (the di·vidend) is larger than ano·ther (the divi·sor). It is the reve·rse of multiplica·tion and is equi·valent to the subtra·ction

of o·ne number from ano·ther aga·in and aga·in. The a·nswer is called the quo·tient, and there may be a rema·inder left over at the end of the opera·tion. There are two kinds of divi·sion: *lo·ng divi·sion,* when nearly all the steps in the opera·tion are written do·wn, and *sho·rt divi·sion,* when the opera·tions are perfo·rmed me·ntally and only the resu·lts are written do·wn.

(a) *Exa·mple of lo·ng divi·sion:*

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 15 | ) 1387 ( | 92 | 15 into 13 won't go; 15 into 138 goes 9 times; $9 \times 5 = 45$, $9 \times 1 = 9 + 4 = 13$; 135 from 138 leaves 3; (bring down 7;) 15 into 37 goes 2 times; 2 times 15 are 30; 30 from 37 leaves 7. |
| divi·sor | 135 | quo·tient | |
| | 37 | | |
| | 30 | | |
| | 7 | rema·inder | |

*Answer:* 92 and 7 over (or $92^{7}/_{15}$).

(b) *Exa·mple of sho·rt divi·sion:*

8) 4979

622 and 3 over (or $622^{3}/_{8}$).

**Fractions** stand for one or more e·qual parts of a u·nit. There are co·mmon fra·ctions (such as $^{3}/_{4}$, three-fourths) and de·cimal fra·ctions (such as 0.75 or .75 — "ze·ro de·cimal seven five" or "oh point seven five" or se·venty-fi·ve hu·ndredths). The nu·merator of co·mmon fra·ctions is written abo·ve the line and the deno·minator belo·w (or underne·ath). The deno·minator in de·cimal fra·ctions is 10 or some power of 10. Mixed numbers consi·st of a whole number and a fra·ction (such as $2^{3}/_{4}$ or 2.75).

## XIII. Money. Weights. Measures.

The French de·cimal system of weights and me·asures was le·galized in the United States (on) July· 28,[1] 1866, by act of co·ngress. It is used to so·me exte·nt in scienti·fic la·boratories and in manufa·cturing for the e·xport trade and by me·dical men and pha·rmacists, but the ge·neral pu·blic[2] has not ado·pted it. The sy·stem in co·mmon use rese·mbles the weights and me·asures used in western Europe befo·re the French revolu·tion and espe·cially the English sy·stem.

### Money.

The de·cimal mo·netary sy·stem was esta·blished in the United States in 1786 by act of co·ngress, before the de·cimal sy·stem was ado·pted in France. The mo·netary u·nit is the do·llar,[3] divi·ded into a hu·ndred cents.

There are $2.50, $5, $10 and $20 (twenty-dollar) gold pieces. *Gold coins* are held by the tre·asury and the banks and do not ci·rculate.

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[1] To be read: *July· the twenty-e·ighth* or *the twenty-e·ighth of July*. The first form of the two is hardly ever used in conversa·tion but is co·mmon in reading alo·ud.

[2] In France and in other countries where the de·cimal sy·stem is suppo·sed to be used exclu·sively, the co·mmon people still speak of *pounds, inches, feet* and *leagues*, and the names of some of the old weights and me·asures still occu·r in li·terary works by conte·mporary a·uthors.

[3] The sign $ is known as the *do·llar-mark*, and it is written before the number close up to the figures.

The cu·rrent *silver coins* are big silver do·llars, 50-cent pieces (or ha·lf-do·llars), 25-cent pieces (or quarters) and 10-cent pieces (or dimes). Fra·ctional silver (ha·lf-do·llars, quarters and dimes) is not (a) le·gal tender for more than $10; silver do·llars are le·gal tender for a·ny amo·unt, unle·ss it is o·therwise sti·pulated in the co·ntract.

There are *ni·ckel* 5-cent pieces, u·sually called ni·ckels, and *bronze* 1-cent coins, ge·nerally called (copper) cents or cent pieces or simply coppers or pennies. Ni·ckels and cent pieces are le·gal tender for amo·unts up to 25c. Beyo·nd that amo·unt they may be refu·sed.

Five di·fferent kinds of *pa·per mo·ney* (or gre·enbacks) are i·ssued by the United States go·vernment: "silver certi ficates" and "gold certi·ficates" ci·rculate in place of silver and gold coin depo·sited in the United States tre·asury by pri·vate parties; "United States notes" are merely the go·vernment's pro·mises to pay money; "na·tional ba·nknotes" are i·ssued in the name of the na·tional banks, pri·vate banks under go·vernment contro·l; "fe·deral rese·rve notes" are i·ssued thru the fe·deral rese·rve banks. Only $1, $2, $5, $10 and $20 bills ci·rculate to any great extent, but there are other denomina·tions running up as high as $10,000.

American stores and re·staurants will not acce·pt *fo·reign mo·ney* exce·pt along the Me·xican fronti·er, where Me·xican mo·ney ci·rculates quite freely, and in some of the towns right at the bor-

der line it is not unu·sual to see the prices of me·r-chandise in the stores marked conspi·cuously in Me·xican mo·ney. A little Cana·dian money, too, ci·rculates in the states near the Cana·dian bo·und-ary; its va·lue before the wo·rld-wa·r was exa·ctly the same as our money, but since then it has flu·ctuated. On the other hand United States money ci·rculates in Ca·nada to so·me exte·nt, and there is a lot of American gold and gre·enbacks in Ce·ntral Ame·rica and the West Indies.

When I have no·thing but fo·reign mo·ney left and want to get some American money, I go to a respe·ctable *mo·ney-changer,* and I ask him: "How much can you give me in American money for a fifty-franc bill?" — "How much can you let me have for forty pe·sos in Me·xican money?" — "I want to get some German money changed; what's the rate of exchange?" It's better for a tra·veler to pro·vide himse·lf with a little American money before he comes to the United States, espe·cially if he arri·ves at night; the rest should be carried in the form of tra·velers' checks or in drafts or checks on some American bank.

## Weights.

Some things are bought and sold by weight. They are weighed on (a) scales. For o·rdinary pu·rposes the fo·llowing weights, known as *avoir-dupo·is weight,* are the only ones used:

1 *oz.* (one ounce, equivalent to 28.35 grams);

1 *lb.* (one pound = 16 oz. = 453.6 g., consequently less than the metrical pound or $^1/_2$ kilogram);

1 *cwt.* (1 hundredweight = 100 lbs. = 45.359 kilos);[1]

1 *T.* (one ton = 20 cwts. = 2000 lbs. = 907.184 kg.)[1]

For weighing gold, silver and precious stones, goldsmiths, silversmiths and jewelers use *troy weight*,[2] with a heavier ounce (= 31.1035 grams) than the ordinary ounce and only 12 ounces to the pound (= 373.242 grams). The troy ounce is subdivided into 20 pennyweights, and each pennyweight into 24 grains (grains of wheat originally). Diamonds are sold by the carat (= $^1/_5$ gram).

The more progressive medical men use the decimal system in writing their prescriptions, but the old *apothecaries' weight* is still used to a large extent, and druggists (or pharmacists) fill prescriptions either way. In apothecaries' weight the grain and ounce and pound are exactly the same as in troy weight, but the ounce is not subdivided in quite the same way. Drugs are sold in quantity by the ordinary avoirdupois weight.

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[1] Not the same in Great Britain. In making accurate calculations foreigners are cautioned not to use the equivalents in this book for the conversion of Imperial weights and measures to the decimal system, nor to use the equivalents given in British reference books in converting United States standard weights and measures. The values are often different in America even when the names are the same.

[2] So called from the city of Troyes (Aube), France, where it originated.

## Measures.

In me·asuring lengths, dime·nsions and di·stances *lo·ng me·asure* is used.

1 *in.* (one inch, e·qual to 2.54 ce·ntimeters);
1 *ft.* (one foot = 12 inches = 30.48 cm.);
1 *yd.* (one yard = 3 feet = 91.44 cm.);
1 *rd.* (one rod = $5^1/_2$ yards = 5.03 meters);
1 *mi.* (one mile = 5280 feet = 1609.35 meters).

Su·rfaces and land and geogra·phical a·reas are me·asured by *squa·re me·asure.*

1 *square inch* (= 6.45 square cm.);
1 *square foot* (= 144 square inches = 924 sq. cm.);
1 *square yard* (= 9 sq. feet = 8361 sq. cm.);
1 *acre* (of land) (= 160 sq. rods = 0.405 he·ctare);
1 *square mile* (= 640 acres = 259 he·ctares = 2.59 sq. ki·lometers).

The vo·lume of things with three dime·nsions (length, breadth and thi·ckness or length, depth and width) is me·asured by *cu·bic me·asure.*

1 *cu·bic inch* (= 16.4 cu·bic cm.);
1 *cu·bic foot* (= 1728 cu. in. = 0.028 cu·bic meter);
1 *cu·bic yard* (= 27 cu. ft. = 0.765 cu·bic meter);
1 (*re·gister*) *ton* (= 100 cu. ft. = 2.83 cu·bic meters) (used for ca·lculating freight charges on o·cean ste·amers).

Li·quids are me·asured by *li·quid me·asure.*

1 *pint* (= 0.473 liter);[1]
1 *quart* (= 2 pints = 0.946 liter);[1]
1 *ga·llon* (= 4 quarts = 3.785 liters).[1]

Grains, fruits, ve·getables and other dry a·rticles are me·asured by *dry me·asure.*

[1] Not the same in England.

1 *pint* (= 0.55 liter);[2]
1 *quart* (= 2 pints = 1.101 liters);[2]
1 *peck* (= 8 *quarts* = 8.809 liters);[2]
1 *bu·shel* (= 4 pecks = 35.24 liters).[2]

## XIV. Time.

Re·ckoning from the birth of Christ, we are living in the 20th ce·ntury of the Chri·stian e·ra. The 19th ce·ntury ended Dece·mber 31, 1900 (read: ni·neteen hu·ndred), at mi·dnight, and the next day, Ja·nuary 1, 1901 (ni·neteen o·ne), was the first day of the 20th ce·ntury. A hu·ndred years make a ce·ntury. Ten years are a de·cade.

There are 12 months or 365 days in a year. A le·ap-year, tho, has one day more or 366 in all; the e·xtra day is added to Fe·bruary. Le·ap-year comes once every four years, with the exce·ption of years that can be divi·ded by 100 but not by 400.

Thirty days have Septe·mber,
April, June and Nove·mber;
To Ja·nuary add another day,
Also to August, March and May,
July, Octo·ber and Dece·mber,
All these have thirty-o·ne, reme·mber! — .
To Fe·bruary twenty-e·ight assi·gn
And in le·ap-year twenty-ni·ne.

There are 7 days in a week: 1 day of rest and 6 working days or we·ek-days. Their names are Su·nday, Mo·nday, Tu·esday, We·dnesday, Thu·rsday, Fri·day and Sa·turday.

[2] Not the same as in Great Britain. Note the di·fferences in the va·lue of the pint and quart in dry measure and in li·quid me·asure.

There are 60 se·conds in a mi·nute, 60 mi·nutes in an hour and 24 hours in a day. Every day runs from mi·dnight to mi·dnight and inclu·des the night (befo·re su·nrise), the morning, the foreno·on, noon, the afterno·on and the e·vening. There ma·y or ma·y no·t be a disti·nction made betwe·en the morning and the foreno·on; the morning is ge·nerally understo·od to be the early part of the foreno·on. For some people the e·vening exte·nds from su·nset to be·dtime; other people consi·der the e·vening to comme·nce a couple of hours befo·re su·ndown; in the southern states it begi·ns at noon.

Someti·mes the moon shines; the mo·onlight is a soft, white light. In the da·ytime it's da·ylight; on a pe·rfectly clear day the sun shines with dazzling brightness. Every year there are se·veral to·tal or pa·rtial ecli·pses of the sun and of the moon. It doesn't often happen that a to·tal ecli·pse of the sun is vi·sible here where we· live.

Time is spe·cified in a good many ways: by giving the exa·ct date befo·re Christ (B. C.) or a·fter Christ (A. D., Anno Do·mini); by re·ckoning from the time when some great man lived (when George Washington was pre·sident, during Andrew Ja·ckson's se·cond administra·tion, in Abraham Li·ncoln's time); by refe·rring to some well-known pe·riod or histo·rical eve·nt (in the stone age, at the time of the disco·very of America, in colo·nial times, in the go·od old times, befo·re the war).

**Date.** — When I want to find out what day of the month it is, I consu·lt an a·lmanac, a book[let] or pa·mphlet with tables in it giving the days and weeks in every month, the time when the sun rises and sets, the phases of the moon, the tides and ecli·pses. It's a good deal handier, tho, to use a ca·lendar, if there happens to be· one hanging on the wall or standing on my desk. Ca·lendars ge·nerally have one sheet for each month. Pad ca·lendars (or daily ca·lendars), with a se·parate sheet for every day in the year, are not used quite so much; one leaf has to be torn o·ff or turned o·ver every morning to keep such a ca·lendar up to date. In case I have no a·lmanac or ca·lendar to refe·r to·, I ask some one:

*What day of the month is it today?* or *What date is it today?*

The a·nswer may be:

*It's the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th, . . . 31st (of March).*

The que·stion: *When'll you be back* [or *When are you going to leave*]? may be a·nswered as fo·llows:

*I'll be back [or I'll leave] (on) the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th, . . . 31st (of Ja·nuary).*

*When's your bi·rthday?*

*(On) the 29th of July.*

**Time of Day.** — Contri·vances called *su·n-dials* and *ho·ur-glasses* were used to show the time of day before watches and clocks were inve·nted.

*Watches* are small ti·mepieces u·sually carried in the ve·st-pocket (the wa·tch-pocket) or strapped around the wrist (wri·st-watches). Wa·tch-cases are made of gold, silver, nickel, steel or gu·n-metal. At one time a man had to have a key to wind his watch (u·p) or to set it; at pre·sent all watches are made ste·m-wi·nd and ste·m-se·t. No key is needed for winding them (u·p) or moving the hands; that's all ma·naged by turning the crown, a co·rrugated knob at the end of the stem insi·de the ring.

On the di·al(-plate), under the cry·stal, there are Ro·man or Arabic fi·gures, a short hand (or an ho·ur-hand), a long hand (or mi·nute-hand) and a se·cond-hand. The case has the works (or mo·vement) insi·de of it. So·me watches are o·pen-faced. Others have a hu·nting case, with a me·tal co·vering over the cry·stal. That's the kind of a watch I carry. My watch never gains nor loses; it keeps good time and never stops unle·ss I forge·t to wind it u·p. When my watch gets out of order, I take it to a wa·tchmaker and have him fix it (or repa·ir it).

*Clocks* ge·nerally strike the hours and so·me of them strike the ha·lf-hours and quarters, too. Their mo·vement is re·gulated by a pe·ndulum. When a clock is slow, the pe·ndulum wants to be sho·rtened; if it runs too fast, the pe·ndulum should be le·ngthened. There are wa·ll-clocks, mantel clocks and old-fa·shioned gra·ndfather's clocks, also ala·rm clocks (for waking people u·p). Ala·rm clocks and chrono·meters have no pe·ndulum.

The time of day is not the same at the same mo·ment in di·fferent countries and places. All places on the same meri·dian have exa·ctly the same time, but every degre·e east is 4 mi·nutes later and every degre·e west 4 mi·nutes earlier. *Sta·ndard time* has been ado·pted to secu·re unifo·rmity and avo·id confu·sion. The country is divi·ded into four zones (or belts) of 15° each. Within each zone the time is u·niform, but there is a di·fference of an hour betwe·en each zone and the one next to it. There is Eastern time, Central time, Mo·untain time and Paci·fic time. The di·fference in time between New Yo·rk and San Franci·sco is 3 hours.

In case I want to know what time it is when I have no watch with me, I ask some one else:

*What time is it, Mr. Smith? — What time is it by your watch? — What ti·me ha·ve you? — What time do you think it is? — Pa·rdon me; can you tell me what time it is?*

There are a good many answers po·ssible:

*By my watch it's (just) one, two, three, ... twelve (o'clock); it's one, two, 3, 10 minutes past* (or *after*) *(one); it's a quarter past (one), half past (one); it's 25, 10, 5 mi·nutes to two; 9 mi·nutes till ele·ven; it's a quarter o·f* (or *of two·); a quarter to two·; it's twelve o'clock; it's mi·dnight.*

Withi·n the fi·rst ha·lf-hour, we say it's so-and-so many mi·nutes pa·st the prece·ding hour (11 mi·nutes past 11; 11 mi·nutes after 11); withi·n the se·cond half, we give the number of mi·nutes to·

the next hour (11 mi·nutes to 11; 11 mi·nutes of 11; 11 mi·nutes till 11). Ra·ilroad men and tra·vel·ers, tho, ge·nerally say: "The train leaves at *one thirty*" (in o·rdinary English: *half past one*); "at *one six*" (1:06); "*one fifte·en*" (1:15); "*one fifty*" (1:50). If there's any doubt about whether the fo·renoon or the a·fternoon is meant, *a. m.* or *p. m.* can be added; for i·nstance, "My train ar·ri·ves at 5:17 *a. m.*" To avo·id confu·sion, se·veral American ra·ilroads divi·de the day into 24 hours, nu·mbered from 1 to 24 in their ti·me-tables, but they use o·rdinary clocks.

Inste·ad of giving the exa·ct number of mi·nutes, we i·ndicate time ge·nerally by stating in va·rious ways that it's so·mewhere near the hour, ha·lf-hour or quarter; for i·nstance:

*It's about 7; it'll soon be 7; it's going to strike 7 soon, it's a little after 7; it's not 8 yet; it'll be 8 pretty soon (now); it's striking 8 (now).*

*What time'll you be over to see me? — What time are you coming over this evening?*

*At 8; at 8 o'clo·ck or a little befo·re 8; at 8 o'clo·ck sharp; along towa·rds 8 o'clo·ck; about 8 or a little after; a few mi·nutes after 8.*

*How long did you work last night?* *From 9 to 12.*

Pro·verbs: *Time and tide wait for no man. — A stitch in time saves nine. — Time is money.*

## XV. Seasons and Weather.

There are four se·asons: spring, summer, fall and winter. Each one of them lasts about three

months. Out on the Paci·fic coast there is a wet se·ason, lasting from Octo·ber to May, and a dry se·ason, from May to October.

The first se·ason of the year is *spring*, from March till June. Alo·ng towa·rds the end of March or a little later it begins to get warmer, and the snow melts. The snow has hardly disappe·ared before the trees bud, and the grass begins to grow. Before long the fru·it-trees are covered with blo·ssoms, and the leaves come o·ut soon after. The fields and me·adows turn green again. Wild flowers are soon in bloom. The birds begin to sing in the trees and me·adows, and they build their nests. Then they lay their eggs. When the young ones are hatched out, they take care of them till they're old enough to fly. Farmers get to work making garden and plowing their fields. They sow their oats and spring wheat and plant their corn. Fruit will be plenty and crops will be good if there's enough rain and no hard frosts.

By the end of June the weather gets a good deal warmer: *summer* has come. Someti·mes on a sultry day the heat gets almost unbe·arable. When it gets so hot (that) people can't stand it any longer, a cold bath at home or a plunge in a swi·mming-pool gives te·mporary reli·ef. The boys go swimming in some river or creek down at the old swi·mming-hole. Someti·mes a thu·nder-storm (or ra·in-storm) brings reli·ef from the heat. Dark clouds gather in the sky; first it thunders and lightens,

and then it begins to po·ur down (to rain ha·rd). A heavy thu·nder-shower or a ha·il-storm soon cools the air off. Bewa·re of taking shelter under a tree in a thu·nder-storm; you run the risk of being struck by lightning. A building prote·cted by a li·ghtning-rod (inve·nted in 1752 by Be·njamin Fra·nklin) is a fairly safe place.

City people take an *outing* in the summer. They travel or go out camping in the woods in a tent or spend part of the ho·t se·ason at some summer reso·rt or at the se·aside.

The hot sun soon ripens the *grain* and *fruit*. Farmers ha·rvest their wheat and oats. Cherries, peaches, plums, stra·wberries, ra·spberries, go·oseberries, cu·rrants, bla·ckberries, hu·ckleberries, mu·lberries, ca·ntaloups, mu·skmelons, wa·termelons and summer apples and pears get ripe. In summer the sun rises (or comes u·p) early in the morning and sets (or goes do·wn) late in the evening.

Summer ends at the Septe·mber e·quinox and *fall* begins then. The days gra·dually get shorter and the nights longer. The weather is cooler than in summer, there is frost on the ground, and by and by the leaves change co·lor and fall o·ff. Grapes, (winter) apples and pears, prunes and greengage plums are picked when they get ripe. Persi·mmons and pa·wpa·ws grow wild in the woods. Ha·zelnuts, fi·lberts, hi·ckory-nuts, che·stnuts, wa·lnuts and peca·ns matu·re and are gathered. Not many of the birds are heard singing any more; they

fly away to some warmer country. Spo·rtsmen (or hu·nters) go hunting; they shoot wild ducks and geese that are on their way south.

The weather keeps getting colder and colder, and at last *winter* sets i·n with sno·w-storms, sleet and ice. There's lots (or a lot) of snow falls during the winter. Then the ground's co·vered with snow for se·veral months at a time. When it snows a good deal and it doesn't melt right awa·y, there's good sleighing, and people go out driving in a sleigh drawn by horses with sle·igh-bells on their ha·rness. Boys like to coast down a hi·llside on a sled; they pull the sled back up hill again with a rope. They make snow men and build forts with chunks of snow. They amu·se themse·lves by rolling up big balls of snow two or three feet thick, and they sno·wball each other by throwing sma·ll sno·wballs. Skating is a po·p-ular winter pa·stime.

Children are likely to have chi·lblains when the weather gets *freezing cold*. We keep up a good fire in winter and wear heavy woolen clothes. On the whole winter's a rather mono·tonous se·ason, and most people would feel bored and lo·nesome if there weren't any i·nteresting books to read and no ra·dio or evening parties or movies or theaters or co·ncerts.

Both the a·verage te·mperature and the u·sual weather depe·nd on the *cli·mate*. Almost any kind of a cli·mate can be found in the United States, as

might be expe·cted in a country about as large as all Europe. In the greater part of the country the winters are very seve·re, and the summers are inte·nsely hot. In the southern states the winters are mild, but the summers are extre·mely hot.

The Paci·fic coast has an even and agre·eable cli·mate te·mpered by the o·cean breezes. The winter months are the *rainy se·ason.* Little or no rain falls in the dry se·ason. The amo·unt of ra·in-fall incre·ases up the coast from south to north; and the amount of snow de·creases do·wn the coast from north to south, until it disappe·ars enti·rely in the southern part of Califo·rnia.

An out-and-out *tro·pical cli·mate* is found in the i·sland posse·ssions: American Samo·a, Hawa·ii, Guam, the Phi·lippines, Po·rto Ri·co and the Vi·rgin Islands. Some of the states, Califo·rnia and Flo·rida espe·cially, have a warm enough climate to make it possible to raise tro·pical and su·b-tropical fruits, such as figs, pi·neapples, o·ranges, le·mons, cu·stard-apples and a·lligator-pears (or avoca·dos).

On the other hand the *freezes* and *frosts* in the spring in some other states make it impo·ssible to raise even such northern fruits as peaches and pears. There are some towns out west in the mountains where snow is likely to fall at any time of the year, July and August not exce·pted.

Varia·tions in te·mperature are shown by the *thermo·meter,* a gra·duated glass tube conta·ining

me·rcury or a·lcohol. Heat expa·nds the co·lumn of li·quid in the tube and cold makes it contra·ct. The Fa·hrenheit thermo·meter is the one used in this country. Water freezes at 32° above ze·ro (32 degre·es, the fre·ezing-point) and boils at 212° Fa·hrenheit (the bo·iling-point).

The *baro·meter* i·ndicates the pre·ssure of the a·tmosphere on the earth and forete·lls changes in the weather; it rises for fine weather and falls for rain and storms. We·ather-fo·recasts are pu·blished in the daily papers.

## Weather Talk.

1. *What kind of weather do you think we are going to have?*

*It looks like it's going* (or *as if it was going*) *to be* a nice day, a gloomy day; a rainy, wet, warm, hot, cold day.

*I expect we're going to have* a fine day, a warm day.

*I think* it's going to stay nice like this; . . . it'll clear u·p (or o·ff) by and by; . . . it'll turn o·ut to be a wet day; . . . it won't stay nice like this; . . . we're going to have some snow, a frost, a little rain, a thaw, a thu·nder-storm.

*It looks like* (or *as if*) *it might* rain, snow; *it looks* rather gloomy.

*It's going to* rain, freeze, thaw, snow.

*We're going to have* some more rain.

2. *I wonder what kind of weather we are going to have.*

*Answers like those under 1.*

3. *How's the weather today?*

*It's* fine, nice, warm, hot, cold, clear, wet, rainy, cloudy, hazy, foggy, windy, unsettled; a sultry day; a gloomy day; beautiful weather.

*It's* freezing, snowing, raining, raining hard, raining pi·tch-forks, pouring down, drizzling, thundering and lightening,

hailing, sleeting, mo·derating, clearing u·p (or o·ff).

*We're having* an a·wful thu·nder-storm; a hard frost; a nice, gentle rain; a shower.

*4. Has it stopped raining [snowing, freezing] yet?*

No, it's still raining a little; no, it's still pouring down; it still keeps on snowing; it's still getting colder all the time.

*5. Is it raining (right) now?*

Ye·s, it i·s. No·, it i·sn't. No·, no·t ri·ght no·w.

*6. Whe·re's the wind? What's the dire·ction of the wind?*

It's in the north [south, east, west, southwe·st]. The wind has changed. It has died down.

*7. Ge·neral phrases and expre·ssions:*

What a beautiful day [or night]! — What wretched (or abo·minable, a·wful, beastly) weather we're having! — What a flash of lightning! — What a treme·ndous clap of thunder! — I'm sure that lightning struck (a building) not far from here. — Ooh! But it's cold today! — Whoo! What a baking hot sun! The heat's killing me. — There's hardly a breath of air; not a leaf('s) stirring. I just ca·n't work in this heat. — I'm sweating. — What a fine ra·inbow!

## XVI. In the Country.

I'm very fond of country life, and I ge·nerally spend my summer vaca·tion on a farm belo·nging to an aunt of mine. She lives awa·y out in the country ten miles from town in a big two-story frame house, with a front porch and a back porch and two chi·mneys. Nearly all the houses in the *ne·ighborhood* are frame buildings, but there's a brick house here and there, too. I've never seen an ado·be house or a sod house, but I've been told there a·re such houses out west in some

places. There are a good many te·nant-farmers in the ne·ighborhood; they live on rented farms. A few well-to-do farmers own their o·wn farms, too.

Country people lead a rather *mono·tonous life.* They work hard from early till late (or from morning till night). They eat plain but who·le-some food; smoked or salt pork, pota·toes, ve·ge-tables and ho·me-made bread, spread with butter or mola·sses. Besi·des the lowing of cattle in the pa·sture or in the ba·rnyard, the grunting and squealing of the hogs in the ho·g-pen, the barking of dogs and the jolting of wa·gons along the road, there's not much noise to be heard in the country.

In spite of the qui·et and appa·rent mono·tony I always have a *good time* at my aunt's; there's plenty of vari·ety there for me·. Now and then I do a little gardening, or my co·usin Jack takes me along with him when he goes fishing or hunting or swimming. Someti·mes we go ho·rseback riding toge·ther and look after the fa·rm-hands. My aunt, you know, has se·veral good sa·ddle-horses, a pony and a lot of other a·nimals of all kinds that I take a good deal of i·nterest in. She keeps dogs and cats (to catch mice and rats), a do·nkey (or bu·rro, for the children to play with), cows and calves, hogs and pigs, bees (in be·ehives), geese, ducks, chickens, tu·rkeys and a magni·ficent pe·acock with beautiful feathers but a very harsh voice.

My aunt's *front yard* is laid out with gravel walks and flower beds, and there are e·vergreen

trees planted in it. Forge·t-me-nots, li·lies-of-the-va·lley, hy·acinths, tu·lips, cro·cuses, vi·olets, pansies, da·isies, roses, pinks (or carna·tions), poppies, da·hlias, asters, gera·niums, chrysa·nthemums and any amo·unt of o·ther flowers bloom in the flower beds. There are li·lac and sno·wball-bushes planted in the yard, too. The front yard's fenced i·n from the road with a pi·cket fence.

There are stra·wberry beds and cu·rrant bushes and go·oseberry bushes in the *garden,* as well as all sorts of ve·getables planted in pa·rallel rows. You see a·pple-trees, pe·ach-trees and pe·ar-trees out in the *o·rchard.* Pu·mpkins are planted in the *corn field* and wa·termelons and ca·ntaloups out in the *wa·termelon patch.* There's a *pota·to patch* not far from the house and a *sweet pota·to patch* over there, too. The ra·spberry bushes in the *ra·spberry patch* and the bla·ckberry bushes in the *bla·ckberry patch* bear ra·spberries and bla·ckberries in the su·mmer-time. There are che·rry-trees and mu·lberry-trees in the back yard.

It's not far from the farm to a stretch of heavy timber, with big, old oaks and hi·ckory-trees, exte·nding along a clear and ra·pid tro·ut-stream, with cattle grazing in the pa·stures at the edge of the *woods.* I've found birds' nests in the woods someti·mes with little eggs in them, and I've often li·stened to the singing of the so·ng-birds (mo·cking-birds, bo·bolinks, me·adow-larks, ro·bins). Game of va·rious kinds (deer, ra·bbits, phe·asants,

pa·rtridges), turtles and li·zards, frogs and toads, harmless and ve·nomous snakes, I have also come acro·ss in my rambles. There aren't any mo·untain-li·ons or bears or coyo·tes around here, but there a·re out west.

The winter months are a time of compa·rative rest for *farmers*. They do their i·ndoor work the·n. But they get to work early in the spring making garden, and they fe·rtilize their fields by hauling out and scattering the straw left over from the year befo·re and manu·re from the ba·rn-yard. The fields are plowed with a plow and ha·rrowed with a ha·rrow. Then the seed is sown. The me·adows turn green again, and wild flowers, such as daisies, bu·ttercups and co·wslips, are soon in bloom.

In June *ha·ymaking* begins. Early in the morning the grass (ti·mothy or clover) is mowed with a mower (a mo·wing-machine drawn by horses), and it falls spread out thinly over the ground and dries in the sun. The ha·ymakers turn the ne·w-mown hay several times with rakes or pi·tchforks, and they make it up into ha·ycocks (or small heaps) before su·nset, to keep the dew from wetting it again. Next morning they spread the hay out again to dry some more. After a couple of days it's brought into the barn on ha·y-racks and stored in the mow, or it may be taken to a baler and compre·ssed into so·lid bales. Pro·verb: Make hay while the sun shines.

By the end of July wheat and oats are ripe, and *ha·rvest-time* has come. The grain is cut with a (self-)bi·nder, and the same machi·ne ties it auto-ma·tically with binding twine into bundles called sheaves. The ha·rvest hands gather the sheaves toge·ther and make shocks of them. When the sheaves are pe·rfectly dry, they are ready to be piled up in big stacks in the field or hauled to the thra·shing-machine. Grain was once thrashed with a flail and se·parated from the chaff by wi·n-nowing in the wind, but that's all done no·w by machi·nery. The straw can be used for bedding and food for horses and cattle.

The grain crop is sold to the e·levator men in the towns. They either ship it at once in ca·r-load lots to larger grain ma·rkets or else store it in their *e·levators,* tall sto·rage-wa·rehouses for grain built at the side of the ra·ilroad-tracks. The grain is high enough u·p in the building to slide o·ut thru chutes into the fre·ight-cars by the force of gra·v-ity, when the time comes to ship it.

In the spring, when the fields have been plowed and ha·rrowed, *corn* is planted in long, straight rows with a ma·chine drawn by horses, called a co·rn-planter. After the corn has sprouted and come u·p, it is cu·ltivated every now and then till it gets about two feet tall, using a cu·ltivator drawn by horses. Lots of weeds begin to grow in the corn fields, and the cu·ltivator destro·ys them by breaking up the su·rface of the ground between the rows of corn.

When *co·rn-husking* time comes in the fall, the farmer goes thru his corn field with a farm wagon and tears the ripe ears of corn out of their husks with a hu·sking-peg. He breaks them o·ff and throws them into his wa·gon. When the wagon gets full, he drives to a big building called a co·rn-crib and shovels his load into the crib with a sco·op-shovel. The corn stays there in the crib till it's shelled with a big machi·ne, called a co·rn-sheller, driven by a ste·am-engine. Then it's hauled away to the e·levator. The cobs can be used for fuel.

Farmers don't always husk all their corn in the fall. They leave the ears in the husks someti·mes and cut the stalks o·ff near the ground with a co·rn-cutter and make *shocks* of them by standing a lot of co·rn-stalks toge·ther on end. The corn can be left that way till spring, or it may be husked little by little in the course of the winter as the stalks and husks are needed for fodder for the cattle. Many a ra·bbit makes his home for the winter in a shock of corn.

Farmers dig their pota·toes[1] and swe·et pȯta·toes in the fall and store them (away) in the cellar along with their ca·bbage, tu·rnips, beets, pa·rsnips

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[1] Often called *Irish pota·toes* to avo·id confu·sion with sweet pota·toes, espe·cially in the southern states. Pota·toes were introdu·ced into Europe from America; so they are not Irish in o·rigin, tho they are the pri·ncipal food of the poor people in Ireland.

and ca·rrots. If they have no cellar, they bury them in the ground deep enough to keep them from freezing. Then they are *ready for winter*. They sow their winter wheat, too, and it lives all winter under the snow and begins to grow again when spring comes.

## XVII. Recreation.

A man that works hard and does his duty fa·ithfully needs a little recrea·tion now and then. So·me like to be amu·sed and enterta·ined by other people, without having to take any a·ctive part themse·lves besi·des just li·stening or looking o·n. But o·thers, parti·cularly brain workers and persons with i·ndoor occupa·tions, prefe·r to take phy·sical e·xercise, and so they turn to some sport or o·utdoor pa·stime for recrea·tion in the open air.

### Amusements and Entertainments.

The *muse·ums* (or mu·seums) and *art ga·lleries* in the large cities attra·ct large numbers of vi·sitors, and they are well worth seeing. There are na·tural hi·story muse·ums and histo·rical muse·ums; most of them have a scienti·fic or histo·rical li·brary in conne·ction with them and a le·cture hall for pu·blic le·ctures. Paintings by old masters and mo·dern a·rtists and sta·tuary by American and fo·reign scu·lptors, as well as casts of fa·mous sta·tues, can be seen in the art ga·lleries.

Po·pular *band co·ncerts* are given in the parks in the warm months. In the largest cities lovers of high-class mu·sic have the opportu·nity of li·stening to *grand o·pera* and *co·ncerts* by noted o·rchestras in the winter.

There are *cabare·ts*, too, in some of the cities, where "jazz" and "ra·gtime" music can be heard. Their pro·grams inclu·de instrume·ntal and vo·cal solos, co·mic songs, ba·llads, "coon" (or ne·gro) songs, acroba·tic and sleight-of-hand perfo·rmances, living pi·ctures, ca·ke-walks, clo·g-dances, ski·rt-dances and serpentine dances. The a·udience is seated at tables, and food and drinks are served while the perfo·rmance goes o·n. Opportu·nity is given the pu·blic to dance.

The *movies* (mo·tion pi·cture the·aters) offer a short enterta·inment with moving pictures. They change their pro·gram every day or once or twice a week. In the *talkies* you can hear the a·ctors sing and talk as well as see them moving about on the screen.

The re·gular *the·aters,* as a rule, are not quite up to the le·vel of the the·aters of contine·ntal Europe, partly because they are not su·bsidized by the go·vernment, and partly because the a·verage the·atergoer is not much of a drama·tic cri·tic; he just wants to see a "good show," and a good "show" is just what he gets to see. Nearly all the plays given are dra·mas written by conte·mporary American a·uthors. Most of them are

me·lodramas, mu·sical co·medies or farces. Tra·gedies are not very po·pular, beca·use most people prefe·r to see and hear so·mething sprightly, che·erful or amu·sing.

Mi·nstrel shows (or "nigger mi·nstrels") are a kind of enterta·inment ori·ginated in the United States, given someti·mes in the smaller the·aters. The stage is o·ccupied by a number of ne·groes (or "darkies") or white men with their faces bla·ckened with burnt cork, all in full dress, seated in a se·mi-circle. They take turns at singing songs, dancing, cracking jokes and telling stories — all in ne·gro di·alect. A *mi·nstrel show* makes no prete·nsions to being a very profo·und affa·ir, but it isn't a bad place for a man to go when he just wants to have a good laugh.

Tra·veling *the·atrical-troupes,* ca·rrying their sta·ge-sce·nery wi·th them, "make" the small towns, stopping a few nights at each place. Plays have a longer run in the large cities: someti·mes an unu·sually succe·ssful dra·ma is given conti·nuously in the same the·ater night after night by the same a·ctors and a·ctresses for a year or more.

Theater *ti·ckets* are sold at the bo·x-office. They can be rese·rved a week in adva·nce with no· e·xtra cha·rge. The best seats are on the main floor and in the boxes (at the sides of the stage and overlo·oking the stage). The ba·lcony and the ga·llery (slang: "nigger heaven") are cheaper. Prices of admi·ssion are ge·nerally higher than in Europe·an

the·aters. There is a perfo·rmance every night inclu·ding Su·ndays, as well as se·veral afterno·on perfo·rmances (or matinées) every week.

The *prompter* stands out of sight at one side of the stage. There is no prompter's box at the front of the stage behi·nd the fo·otlights.

Pe·rsons hired to appe·ar on the stage who are not real a·ctors and have no lines to say are called *supers* (slang: "supes").

Strange to say, there is no pe·rmanent *ci·rcus* in the United States. American ci·rcuses are all tent shows. They travel by rail from place to place on spe·cial trains of their o·wn.

Besi·des pu·blic places of amu·sement there are plenty of *pri·vate enterta·inments,* such as rece·ptions, parties, dances (or balls), a·mateur thea·tricals, so·ciables and pi·cnics.

A great vari·ety of free enterta·inment is fu·rnished people in their own homes by the *ra·dio-pro·grams* sent out by the bro·adcasting stations. Anyone with a receiving set can "listen i·n" on speeches, se·rmons, mu·sic and other enterta·inment from near-by and far-away stations.

While so·me enterta·inments are rese·rved either for the winter or for the summer, *dancing* is enjo·yed at any time of the year. The ladies as well as the ge·ntlemen have pro·grams, with blank spaces to note down their partner for each dance. Of course, a stranger has to be introdu·ced to a lady first, before he can ask her to dance with him.

| Gentleman. | Lady. |
| --- | --- |
| | *She acce·pts:* |
| Are you enga·ged for every dance, Miss Shaw? | No, I have a waltz left. |
| May I have the next fo·xtrot, Miss Fe·nton? | Yes, you may. |
| | *She decli·nes:* |
| Will you give me (or let me have) the next waltz? | I'm very sorry, but I feel rather tired, and I'd like to rest a while. |
| May I see your pro·gram?—Can you spare me a dance, Miss Boyle? | Very sorry, inde·ed; but I've no·t o·ne le·ft; you see my pro·gram's full. |

After a dance the ge·ntleman asks his partner whether she will have some refre·shment. If she acce·pts, he takes her to the refre·shment room and gets her whate·ver she prefe·rs. When the mu·sic for the next dance begins, he condu·cts her to her seat, says "Thank you," bows and leaves her. A lady left witho·ut a partner is called a "wa·llflower." The dances most in use are the waltz, fo·xtrot, o·ne-step and two·-step.

## Sports and Games.

The game of *ba·seball*, the American na·tional game, is played in the warm months by two teams with nine players on each side on a "di·amond," a square field with four "bases" at the corners.[1]

[1] The players try to make a run from one base to ano·ther around the di·amond, once they have given the ball a good hit with their bat. They take turns at batting. Nine "innings"

Another ball game that ori·ginated in the United States is *ba·sket-ball.*[1] It can be played either outdo·ors or in a gymna·sium.

In the fall months *fo·otball*[2] aro·uses lots of enthu·siasm in the co·lleges and unive·rsities.

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u·sually make a game. When three players have been decla·red "out" acco·rding to the rules of the game, the next inning belongs to the other side and they go to the bat, one at a time. The u·mpire is a kind of judge to enfo·rce the rules of the game and to settle dispu·ted points. Profe·ssional ba·seball players are paid for playing and make their living that way. Amateurs play just for the sport of it. Amateur games are arra·nged between di·fferent co·lleges and schools, between emplo·yees of di·fferent bu·siness houses and fa·ctories and between ne·ighboring towns

[1] A great big, round, infla·ted ball with a leather co·vering is used. The two goals are not very far apa·rt. They have a post with a horizo·ntal i·ron ring high up, big enough to let the ball pass thru. A net hanging down from the ring forms a ba·sket-like pouch. Each side tries to throw the ball into the ba·sket at the o·pposite goal.

[2] Fo·otball is played by stu·dents (11 men on each team) on a big field (the gri·diron) with a goal at each end, using a big infla·ted e·gg-shaped ball with a leather co·vering. A game lasts over an hour: there are two halves, each divi·ded again into two 15-mi·nute pe·riods, making four quarters, with inter·mi·ssions betwe·en them. Points are made by carrying the ball over the oppo·nents' goal line and by kicking the ball from the field over the horizo·ntal crossbar between the two posts of the goal or ca·rrying or passing it to a player behi·nd the goal line. The team (or side) that scores the greatest number of points wins the game. American fo·otball is di·fferent from the fo·otball games played in other countries. The ball is someti·mes kicked but is ge·nerally carried fo·rward by one of the players running while he holds it or by passing it by hand from one player to

Another open-a·ir game, *lawn-te·nnis,* is played with ra·ckets and a ho·llow india-ru·bber ball covered with felt, on a pe·rfectly le·vel, recta·ngular court marked off with whi·tewash lines and divi·ded into two halves by a net stretched acro·ss the middle. Te·nnis is played by women as well as men.

The game of *golf* is played over an open stretch of country (known as a golf course or golf links) with a small, hard ball and a number of clubs with crooked ends. The o·bject of the players is to drive the ball, with as few strokes as possible, in re·gular order, into each of the holes made to re·ce·ive it. Golf is a rather aristocra·tic game. Men and women both play it.

In *field and track athle·tics* there are a great many different "events."[1]

another or by pushing fo·rward with it by main strength, someti·mes only a few inches at a time, against the resi·stance of the oppo·sing team. Besides self-contro·l and ini·tiative fo·otball players need a good deal of brute strength and phy·sical resi·stance. The game is a rough and da·ngerous one; players are someti·mes killed or se·riously i·njured.

[1] The races are walking races (1 mile to 2 miles), running races (100 yards to 10 miles), hurdle races (combi·ning swift running with neat jumping over ba·rriers), crosscountry runs and rela·y races. The jumping events are the high jump (the greatest di·stance possible above the ground), the broad jump (the longest jump possible in a horizo·ntal dire·ction) and the pole vault (leaping with the aid of a pole over a horizo·ntal wooden stick held at a height of 10 to 12 feet above the ground). There are co·ntests in putting the shot (16 lbs., with one hand), throwing the hammer, throwing the 56-pound weight and throwing the di·scus.

Thick padded bo·xing-gloves are used in *boxing*, the so·-ca·lled "noble art of se·lf-defe·nse." It affo·rds e·xercise and enterta·inment for the young sports who put on the gloves with each other and enthu·se over pri·ze-fights and pu·blic bo·xing-co·ntests betwe·en e·xpert boxers.

Someti·mes qua·rrels are settled by an o·rdinary fi·st-fight.

In seve·re winter weather, when the rivers and ponds are frozen over hard enough to bear a man, people go *skating* on the ice, using i·ce-skates. There are ska·ting-rinks, too, in the cities, where people can skate i·ndoors on ro·ller-skates.

The open season for *hunting* varies with the different kinds of game, and the ga·me-laws are not the same in the different states e·ither. It's against the law to shoot game in the closed season. Some kinds of game are prote·cted by law all the year round — vari·eties that are nearly exti·nct or that are only being introdu·ced and are not plenty yet. Squi·rrels, ra·bbits, quail, wild ducks and wild geese are the co·mmonest kinds of game. Wild tu·rkeys used to be plenty, but they're about all killed off now. Phe·asants brought from China are getting rather ple·ntiful under the prote·ction of the ga·me-laws. Po·ssums (opo·ssums) and coons (racco·ons) are good eating, but they are only found in some of the warmer states. There are no more bu·ffalo but a few on bu·ffalo-farms and in zoos and mena·geries and those living wild in the

Yellowstone National Park.[1] Big game of other kinds (bear, deer, mo·ose) is scarce.

E·xpert swimmers take up *swimming* as a sport, and it is a refre·shing recrea·tion even for begi·nners who are not good swimmers.

Other more or less popular sports are fishing, rowing, yachting, fencing, wrestling and ho·rse-racing. *Betting* is very pre·valent among a ce·rtain class of people. Americans bet on ho·rse-races, pri·ze-fights, ba·seball and fo·otball games and even on the ele·ctions. *Lo·tteries* are ille·gal in the United States. Lo·ttery ti·ckets and ci·rculars adverti·sing fo·reign lo·tteries are deni·ed transmi·ssion in the mails, even when they have been mailed in some other country.

Nearly every one has a *hobby* (or fa·vorite occupa·tion) of some kind or other to pass the time with. For pa·stime people take to reading no·vels; playing the pia·no, violi·n, guita·r or ma·ndolin;

[1] The Ye·llowstone Na·tional Park is a tract of land mostly in the state of Wyo·ming set apa·rt by co·ngress in 1872 as a pu·blic ple·asure-ground and ga·me-preserve. There are 3,348 square miles in it — more te·rritory than the combi·ned a·rea of De·laware and Rhode Island, the two smallest states in the union. It has beautiful lakes, wa·terfalls and ca·nyons in it; dense fo·rests; pe·trified trees; boiling springs with be·autiful te·rraces formed by depo·sits of the mi·neral matter in the water; and a large number of ge·ysers and paint pots (miniature volca·noes that throw out hot water and mud at more or less re·gular i·ntervals). There are a good many large na·tional parks in other states, too, rese·rved for their scenic beauty or histo·ric i·nterest. They are vi·sited by tho·usands of to·urists every year.

sta·mp-colle·cting; drawing; painting; pyro·graphy (burning de·corative desi·gns into the su·rface of wood or leather with a hot iron); and playing bi·lliards, chess, checkers or cards.

The commonest *card games* are so·litaire, whist, bridge, five hundred and poker. So·litaire can be played by o·ne pe·rson alo·ne; poker is an American gambling game. A deck of pla·ying-cards inclu·des 52 re·gular cards and a joker (an e·xtra card with some odd desi·gn, not used in all games). The four suits are clubs, spades, hearts and di·amonds. The cards of each suit are the king, queen, jack, 10 (the "ten" or the "te·n-spot"), 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3 (the "three," the "trey," the "three·-spot"), 2 (the "two," the "deuce," the "two·-spot") and the ace.

## XVIII. Red Letter Days.

**Birthday.** — When a person's bi·rthday (the annive·rsary of the day he was born) comes, his rela·tions and i·ntimate friends offer him their congratula·tions and best wishes. There is a ste·reotyped phrase used for the pu·rpose: "(I wish you) Many happy retu·rns of the day." The answer is, "Thank you." Children may have a bi·rth-day party. Bi·rthday pre·sents are given occa·sionally.

**Age.** — My bi·rthday is (or comes on) the 29th of July. I was born in 19—, and so I'm going to be 18 on my next bi·rthday (a week from today, in a week, in two weeks).

*How o·ld's your fa·ther? How old do you take that man to be? How old do you think* (or *suppose*) *he is? How old are you? What is your age?*

*I'm fifteen* (*years old*). *I'm 16 and going on 17. I'm nearly 18. I'm not of age yet. I'll be of age four years from now. My older brother's 6 years older than I am. He was 24 not long ago; he's going on 25 now. He's going to marry a girl that's still in her teens* (the years ending in *-teen:* 13 to 19). *My younger brother's over 16; if he wa·sn't, he couldn't work in the office: they don't emplo·y any one under 16.* (*My*) *Father's 82: you'd think he was 25 years younger; he doesn't look his age* (or *doesn't seem to be as old as that*). *My mother was 66 when she died; she's been dead 14 years now.*

**Sunday.** — For so·me people Su·nday is a qui·et day of rest and devo·tion. It is kept more strictly than any other ho·liday by very pi·ous people.

For o·ther people Sunday is a day of recrea·tion and amu·sement. Some of the men go swimming or hunting or fishing. When the weather's nice, a good many people spend part of the day or all of it in the parks or out in the country. Ba·seball games in the afterno·on draw (or attra·ct) large crowds. The art ga·lleries and muse·ums are crowded, too, and some of the pu·blic li·braries are open in the afterno·on. There are two perfo·rmances in the the·aters — one in the afterno·on and the other in the evening. The big dailies come out on Sunday with an unu·sually i·nteresting and profu·sely i·llustrated edi·tion consi·sting of about a hu·ndred pages.

Getting ready for Su·nday makes Sa·turday a busy day for ho·usekeepers; they do their cooking

and baking and put the house in order. A good many of the banks, o·ffices, shops and fa·ctories close at noon on Sa·turday(s) to give their emplo·yees a ha·lf-ho·liday.

**New Year's** day is the 1st of Ja·nuary. On New Year's eve (the last e·vening of the old year) a good many people stay up till mi·dnight to hear the o·ld year rung o·ut (by the chu·rch-bells) and the ne·w one i·n. Some of the churches hold a "wa·tch-night se·rvice." On New Year's day people wish each other a "Happy New Year." Pre·sents are given someti·mes. Some people make New Year's resolu·tions to impro·ve their co·nduct.

**Lincoln's Birthday** (Fe·bruary 12) is ce·lebrated in most of the states. Abraham Li·ncoln was pre·sident of the United States during the great Ci·vil Wa·r (1861-65). The southern states sece·ded from the union and esta·blished a se·parate go·vernment in the South, the Confe·derate States of America. Li·ncoln prese·rved the union and freed (or set fre·e) the ne·groes held in sla·very in the South.

**Valentine's Day** comes on the 14th of Fe·bruary. Young people send va·lentines to each other (ano·nymous cards or letters sold in the stores) on that day to please or puzzle their friends or to anno·y people they don't like. Fancy va·lentines are rather ela·borate affa·irs; they are sent as a mark of este·em. Co·mic va·lentines are co·lored cari·catures printed on a sheet of o·rdinary paper

with some sarca·stic po·etry at the bo·ttom; it's no co·mpliment to rece·ive one of them.

**Washington's Birthday** (Fe·bruary 22) is ge·nerally obse·rved all over the country. George Washington was the pri·ncipal mi·litary he·ro of the War of Indepe·ndence and the first pre·sident, "first in war, first in peace, first in the hearts of his co·untrymen."

**The Carnival** is ce·lebrated in a few places in the United States by street festi·vities and proce·ssions. Excu·rsion ti·ckets are sold on the ra·ilroads, and people tra·vel long di·stances to see the Ma·rdi Gras pa·geants in New Orleans on the last few days before Lent, espe·cially on Shrove Tuesday.

**All Fools' Day** on the 1st of April is not a le·gal ho·liday, and work goes on the same as u·sual. People play all kinds of tricks and pra·ctical jokes on their i·ntimate friends. When the vi·ctim sees he has been taken i·n, they call him "April fool."

**Good Friday** (the Fri·day of Holy Week) comme·morates the crucifi·xion of Je·sus. It is a le·gal ho·liday in some of the states.

**Easter Sunday** comme·morates the resurre·ction of Je·sus. The 40-day fast obse·rved during Lent by Ca·tholics and so·me Pro·testants is ended. Spe·cial se·rvices are held in the churches, and the ladies appe·ar in their new spring hats. More eggs are eaten on Easter Sunday than on any other day of the year — hard boiled eggs with the shells co·lored. Easter a·lways comes on Sunday, so it's

not much more of a ho·liday than Sunday is a·ny-way. School goes o·n before and after Easter the same as usual without interru·ption.

**Arbor Day** is a le·gal ho·liday in a good many of the states, inte·nded to cu·ltivate the love of trees among the people and to impre·ss the pu·blic in ge·neral and the rising genera·tion in parti·cular with the impo·rtance of the conserva·tion of the na·tion's fo·rests. The date of Arbor day varies from one state to ano·ther, but it comes generally in April or May. There are pu·blic tre·e-planting e·xercises in the schools and co·lleges, with appro·-priate speeches.

**Decoration Day** (May 30) is a day set apa·rt in the northern states for de·corating the graves of old so·ldiers (or ve·terans) with flags and flowers. Other people also fall in with the cu·stom and put flowers on the graves of their dead re·latives who were not so·ldiers on the same day. The date of Decora·tion day is set at a time of the year when flowers are plenty. The se·ason is further ad-va·nced in the South, and Confe·derate Memo·rial Day is obse·rved earlier down there.

**The Fourth of July** (or Indepe·ndence Day) is the annive·rsary of the Declara·tion of Indepe·nd-ence from Great Bri·tain on July 4, 1776. It is ce·lebrated with para·des, speeches and po·pular amu·sements. Small boys make a good deal of noise that day with their fi·recrackers, bombs and torpe·does. There are fi·reworks at night.

**Labor Day** is a le·gal ho·liday on the first Mo·nday in Septe·mber. All the banks and most of the stores close. There are speeches and a para·de made u·p of the la·bor-unions and floats represe·nting bu·siness houses.

**Columbus Day** is obse·rved by law as a ho·liday in so·me of the states on the annive·rsary of the disco·very of America by Chri·stopher Colu·mbus, Octo·ber 12, 1492.

**Hallowe'en** is the last night in the month of October. The boys make ja·ck-o'-lanterns. They ho·llow o·ut a pu·mpkin and cut holes in it to i·mitate a nose, mouth and eyes, and then put a lighted candle insi·de. Young people go out serena·ding their friends. The young men are up to all kinds of de·viltry, and they do a good many unexpe·cted things before morning. Boardwalks are turned over. Gates and ba·rn-do·ors are carried away, and they are found someti·mes se·veral miles from the place where they belo·ng. A co·llege profe·ssor need not be surpri·sed next morning if he finds a cow on his front porch tied to the do·or-knob. A farmer may find the wheels of his wa·gon in some tre·e-top.

**Thanksgiving (Day).** After the New England co·lonists had ha·rvested their first crop in the New World in 1621, the go·vernor of the co·lony appo·inted a day for pu·blic prayer and thanksgi·ving. Since that year a day has been set asi·de with more or less regula·rity for the same pu·rpose.[1]

[1] Since 1864 the pre·sident has i·ssued a proclama·tion

**Christmas** comes on the 25th of Dece·mber and comme·morates the birth of Je·sus. Chri·stmas is the only church ho·liday the a·verage American pays very much atte·ntion to. It is the pri·ncipal day of the year for giving pre·sents.[1]

Chri·stmas trees are someti·mes seen in pri·vate houses, and there are pu·blic *Chri·stmas trees* in some of the Pro·testant churches, either on Chri·st-mas eve or else on the night of the 25th.

Any one can send pre·sents to be put on the Chri·stmas tree. A man dressed u·p to represe·nt Sa·nta Claus takes the packages off (of) the Chri·st-

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every year setting aside the last Thursday in Nove·mber as a day of thanksgi·ving. Classes are suspe·nded in the co·lleges and unive·rsities and other schools until the fo·llowing Mo·nday, and the stu·dents go home for Thanksgi·ving. Other people living away from home aim to spend the day with their folks at home, too. Thanksgi·ving dinner is the pri·ncipal fe·ature of the day. People are suppo·sed to have a roast tu·rkey for dinner, stuffed with dressing, or at least a roast goose or a duck or a chicken. Cra·nberry sauce and pu·mpkin pie are other fe·atures of a re·gular Thanksgi·ving dinner. Spe·cial se·rvices are held in the churches in the foreno·on.

[1] Children hang u·p their stockings at the foot of their bed on Chri·stmas eve (the night bef>re Chri·stmas), beli·eving "Sa·nta Claus" will come before morning and fill them with candy and pla·ythings and toys. Santa Claus (Saint Ni·cholas) is supposed to be a ki·ndly-faced old man with a heavy, gray beard and mustache and a fur coat and cap and mittens. He goes aro·und in a sleigh the night before Chri·stmas, filling little children's stockings with pre·sents (or Chri·stmas gifts). He's supposed to get into the houses by coming down the chi·m-ney with a big sack (or bag) full of pre·sents on his back.

mas tree, reads off the name on each package and hands them to ushers to be distri·buted to the pe·rsons they are inte·nded for in the a·udience.

Holly, ivy and branches of e·vergreen trees are used to *de·corate* the churches, as well as rooms in pri·vate houses. Pieces of mi·stletoe are hung u·p in pri·vate houses in places where a pe·rson walking along might stop and stand still under them. Any one is suppo·sed to have the right to kiss a girl when he finds her standing under the mi·stletoe.

There is a two weeks' *vaca·tion* in the schools and co·lleges, beginning before Chri·stmas and ending after New Year's. Some people in other occupa·tions have a week or two off at the same time. That part of the year is co·mmonly refe·rred to as the "ho·lidays."

Letters written to friends just before the ho·lidays u·sually end with: (*Wishing you a*) *Merry Christmas and a Happy New Year.* At any time during the ho·lidays (*With*) *Co·mpliments of the Se·ason* is an appropriate ending for a letter. On Chri·stmas morning the u·sual greeting is: "Merry Chri·stmas." The other pe·rson answers: "The sa·me to you."

Chri·stmas dinner is an ela·borate affa·ir, a good deal like Thanksgi·ving dinner.

## XIX. Mail and Express.

Hardly any pu·blic offi·cial is more po·pular or more we·lcome than the le·tter-carrier (or ma·il-

man or po·stman). He's the one that brings people good news or someti·mes bad news, too. He goes from house to house and drops the letters and other mail into the le·tter-box at the front door. He either blows a whistle to let people know he's coming, or else he rings the do·or-bell. There are a geod many *colle·ctions* and *deli·veries* every day, espe·cially in the bu·siness di·strict of the large cities. Letters and po·stal cards can be handed to the le·tter-carrier or mailed at the po·stoffice or dropped into the le·tter-boxes on the street corners. There are big bins, too, on the bu·siest streets for printed matter and packages.

When I want to *write a letter* or a note (a short, info·rmal letter), I go and get a pen and ink and a sheet or two of wri·ting-paper. White paper is the most appro·priate. First I write my full addre·ss and the date at the right, not far from the top. Then I put the name and addre·ss of the person I'm writing to at the left. Some kind of a fo·rmal saluta·tion comes next, such as "(Dear) Sir[s]," "Ge·ntlemen" or "(Dear) Ma·dam" (apply·ing to a·ll wo·men, ma·rried or u·nmarried), fo·llowed by a co·lon (:). When I write to people I'm well acqua·inted with, there's no need of writing their name and addre·ss at the head of the letter; I just begin with some such saluta·tion as "My Dear Smith," "Dear Dr. Jones," "Friend Johnson" or "Dear Uncle Henry." Letters to strangers ge·nerally end with "Yours tru·ly," "Yours very truly"

or "Very truly yours." The si·gnature comes last of all.[1]

There are *bu·siness letters,* written on a ty·pewriter on printed le·tter-heads, and *pri·vate letters* (or fami·liar letters), written with pen and ink on folded no·te-paper.

When my letter's fi·nished, I put it in(to) an *e·nvelope* and seal it by moistening the gummed flap. Some people seal their letters with se·aling-wax besi·des; the seal they use has an ini·tial or mo·nogram engra·ved on it. When I've got the letter sealed and the addre·ss written on the e·nvelope, I put on a po·stage-stamp.

When you write to a man, you put "Mr." (mi·ster; never written in full before names) before his name, unle·ss he's a profe·ssional man and has some other title. In that case "Mr." is omi·tted and you use the *title* alone; for insta·nce, "Dr." (do·ctor), "Rev." (re·verend), "Prof." (profe·ssor), "Maj." (ma·jor), "Col." (co·lonel), "Gen." (ge·neral), "Capt." (ca·ptain), "Hon." (ho·norable; appli·es to high go·vernment offi·cials) and so on. Such combina·tions as "Mr. Dr." and "Mr. Prof." and "Prof. Dr." — tho used in other la·nguages — are not admi·ssible in English, but the combina·tions "Rev. Mr." and "Rev. Dr." are all right, in case they are followed imme·diately by the fa·mily name.

[1] For further deta·ils about le·tter-writing, consu·lt Kron's *English Letter-Writer,* published by J. Bielefelds Verlag, Ettlingen (Baden) and Leipzig.

A small boy is addre·ssed as "Master _____," a ma·rried wo·man as "Mrs. _____," an u·nmarried wo·man as "Miss _____" and several young ladies as "The Misses _____."

Other *rema·rks* may be put on the e·nvelope: "Pe·rsonal," "In care of _____ _____" (abbre··viated: °/₀ _____ _____), "Ge·neral Deli·very," "To be held till called for."

Letters addre·ssed to the *ge·neral deli·very* in large cities must be called for at the main po·stoffice; the branch po·stoffices (called stations) and the po·stal su·bstations (in dru·gstores and depa·rtment-stores) have no ge·neral deli·very. When a man calls for his mail at the ge·neral deli·very, he asks the clerk: "Is there a·nything for _____ _____?" Fo·reigners and other people with unco·mmon names that might be mi·sunderstood by the clerk would do well to hand him their printed card or the e·nvelope of an old letter bearing the name plainly written. In tha·t case all they need to say is: "(Got) anything (here) for me?" Or they may not need to say a·nything at a·ll.

If there's a possibi·lity that my letter may not reach the pe·rson it's addre·ssed to, I use an e·nvelope with a printed *retu·rn-card,* or else I write my name and addre·ss in the upper left-hand corner of the e·nvelope, prece·ded by "From" or "If not deli·vered in — days retu·rn to." Dead letters with no indica·tion of the se·nder's name and addre·ss on the e·nvelope are sent to the dead-le·tter office in

Wa·shington, D. C.[1] They are opened there and retu·rned to the sender, in case his addre·ss is insi·de; o·therwise they are destro·yed.

A good way to keep a letter from getting lost is to have it *re·gistered.* The re·gistry fee is 15c. Pa·ckages are *insu·red,* no·t re·gistered (fee 5c to 25c). If the sender writes or stamps "Rece·ipt Desi·red" or "Retu·rn Rece·ipt Dema·nded" on the e·nvelope or wrapper of a piece of re·gistered or insu·red mail and pays 3c extra, he will rece·ive a rece·ipt signed by the pe·rson it's deli·vered to.

By putting a 10c *spe·cial-deli·very* stamp on his letter, the sender can have it deli·vered by a spe·cial me·ssenger as soon as it reaches the rece·iving office, and the pe·rson rece·iving it has to rece·ipt for it in the me·ssenger's deli·very book. In case the letter is plainly marked "Special Delivery," o·rdinary stamps can also be used to pay the fee.

The *a·irmail* saves the pu·blic time and money by fo·rwarding by a·irplane letters plainly marked "Vi·a Airmail." Spe·cial a·irmail-stamps or o·rdinary stamps can be used (mi·nimum rate, 5c).

It's cu·stomary to enclo·se a stamp for the reply· with some kinds of letters. *Reply· coupo·ns,* sold at 9c each, are used in the same way for enclo·sing with letters to foreign countries. American stamps are not acce·pted for postage in other countries, but a reply coupo·n can be excha·nged there for a

[1] Read: either *dee see* or *Di·strict of Colu·mbia.* In conversa·tion we just call it *Wa·shington* or *Wa·shington City.*

stamp of the right kind to carry a letter back to the United States.

When the sender fails to put enough postage on his letter before he mails it, the amount of the deficiency is collected from the person it's addressed to; *postage due* on mail from foreign countries is collected double. The amount to be paid is collected in cash, not in postage-stamps, and special due stamps to the proper amount are pasted on the wrapper and canceled by the post-office employee. Postage-due stamps (½c to $5) are not sold uncanceled to the public.

Ordinary *postage-stamps* are issued in denominations running from ½c to $5. *Stamped envelopes* are issued in denominations of 1, 1½, 2, 4 and 5c. They have an embossed stamp printed on the envelope itself. They are a great convenience to the public. Special 5c stamped envelopes with a barber-pole border (red, white and blue) are obtainable for airmail-letters. Stamped *newspaper wrappers* are also provided (1, 1½, 2c). Domestic *postal cards*[1] cost 1c each (two sizes), foreign postal cards for Postal Union countries 3c each,

[1] The postal laws make a distinction between *postal cards* and *post-cards*. The plain cards without illustrations, printed and sold by the government, have always been called *postal cards* in the United States. When private illustrated cards were put on the market, they were first designated officially as *private mailing cards* and later on as *post-cards*. The use of the inscription "Postal Card" is prohibited by law on cards not issued by the government.

exce·pt that a redu·ced rate of 2c appli·es to po·stal cards for Great Bri·tain and Ireland, New Ze·aland, Spain and the Spanish co·lonies and nearly all the countries of America. Double cards (or po·stal cards with paid reply) have two halves: one for the me·ssage and the other for sending back the answer. Po·stal cards are sold at face value, without any extra charge for the card itself, but stamped envelopes and wrappers cost a little more than their face value.

Two cents an ounce will carry a letter to any place in the United States, inclu·ding Ala·ska and the Cana·l Zone and the i·sland posse·ssions. The same rate holds good for Great Bri·tain and Ireland, New Ze·aland, Spain, all the La·tin-American re-pu·blics exce·pt Venezue·la, the Dutch West Indies and all the Bri·tish posse·ssions in America exce·ps the Fa·lkland Islands. To all other foreign countriet *letter postage* is 5c for the first ounce and 3c for each extra ounce.

There is a zone system of *pa·rcel-po·st* rates, varying with the weight of the package and the distance it is to be carried. The lowest rates are in the local zone, 7c for 1 lb. (pound) up to 42c for 70 lbs. The highest rate is to the eighth zone, 13c for 1 lb. up to $6.01 for 50 lbs. The weight-limit is 70 lbs. to the near zones and 50 lbs. to the far-away zones. Small packages (not over 8 oz.) take a spe·cial rate of 1½c for each 2 ounces, rega·rdless of di·stance. The fo·reign pa·rcel-po·st rate is 14c a pound.

The rate of postage on *printed matter* of all kinds to fo·reign countries is 2 ounces for 1 cent. The same rate appli·es to ne·wspapers and perio·d-icals in the dome·stic mails, but printed matter of other kinds (ci·rculars, books, ca·talogs, pho·to-graphs, etc.) goes at the same rates as me·rchandise, alre·ady given under parcel post.

Packages of me·rchandise or printed matter can be sent sealed, provi·ded they are marked "May be Opened for Postal Inspection," but there should be no writing insi·de. The sender is allo·wed to atta·ch to the o·utside of a package a re·gular letter in an e·nvelope se·parately stamped and ad-dre·ssed. By paying a *spe·cial-ha·ndling* charge in addi·tion (10c, 15c, 20c) the sender can have a package handled in tra·nsit and deli·vered the same as if it was a sealed letter. By sending it *spe·cial deli·very* (15c, 25c, 35c e·xtra) it will be handled the same way as a special-deli·very letter. Special-ha·ndling stamps and special-deli·very stamps for packages are in use, but o·rdinary stamps will do, in case the package is plainly marked "Special Handling" or "Special Delivery."

The *expre·ss co·mpanies* are pri·vate corpora·-tions affi·liated with the ra·ilroad co·mpanies. They o·perate spe·cial cars of their own on the ra·ilroads, atta·ched to pa·ssenger-trains. They compe·te with the go·vernment po·stal se·rvice by acce·pting pack-ages of any weight or size, by calling for and de-li·vering all packages and by handling them with

the same secu·rity as re·gistered mail, without the pa·yment of an addi·tional fee. The expre·ss co·mpanies at one time carried letters, too, but that has been made a go·vernment mono·poly.

Fresh fruit and pe·rishable provi·sions are ge·nerally shipped by *expre·ss,* for o·rdinary freight is far too slow. Tra·velers moving about a good deal someti·mes send part of their ba·ggage ahe·ad of them by express to some place where they will be in a few weeks to avo·id being encu·mbered with it. The expre·ss co·mpany will hold it 30 days after it reaches its destina·tion, without charge for sto·rage, and will deli·ver it to any addre·ss in the city on reque·st. Express agents buy and sell me·rchandise and provi·sions, colle·ct bills and notes, pay taxes and perfo·rm other se·rvices in their city for pe·rsons living in other places.

Po·stoffice mo·ney-orders or expre·ss mo·ney-orders are a good way of making *remi·ttances,* or the cash itse·lf can be sent by expre·ss or by re·gistered mail, either in coin or paper money. Small amounts are often remi·tted in po·stage-stamps. Money can be transfe·rred by te·legraph, too, or by cable. Large amounts are generally sent in the form of a bank draft. The go·vernment often sends large amounts in gold and silver bu·llion or in cu·rrency by express. The banks remi·t cash ba·lances in the same way. At lonely places between stations in the western states, armed ba·ndits someti·mes hold u·p pa·ssenger-trains to

rob the expre·ss-cars and the re·gistered mail. The expre·ss me·ssengers in charge of the expre·ss-cars go heavily armed. Transporta·tion by expre·ss offers a·bsolute secu·rity to the pu·blic; the co·mpanies make good all losses.

## XX. Telegraph and Telephone.

The *te·legraph* is an American inve·ntion, the disco·very of Prof. Sa·muel F. B. Morse. It is o·perated by sending an ele·ctric cu·rrent over a wire. The sending o·perator a·lternately breaks and closes the ci·rcuit by pressing the key of the i·nstrument.

In the *printing te·legraph* the o·perator touches the keys of a ke·yboard. The message is printed on paper automa·tically like ty·pewriting at the rece·iving o·ffice, one letter at a time.

The *automa·tic te·legraph* gives u·niform and automa·tic transmi·ssion at high speed. A paper tape pe·rforated cro·sswise with holes in di·fferent combina·tions to represe·nt the letters of the message is put thru an automa·tic transmi·tting machi·ne that sends ele·ctric i·mpulses over the wire corresp·onding to the varia·tions in the pe·rforated holes.

The te·legraph sy·stem of the United States is in the hands of se·veral pri·vate co·mpanies. Their *charges* vary acco·rding to the di·stance. The mi·nimum charge for short di·stances is 30c for a 10-word te·legram. No charge is made for the

addre·ss or the si·gnature. There are redu·ced rates for night messages, also for "day letters." "Night letters" of 50 words are acce·pted for transmi·ssion at night, to be deli·vered in the morning, at the same rates as 10-word messages in the da·ytime.

Ca·blegrams are me·ssages sent by a submari·ne *cable* to fo·reign countries. They cost abo·ut 25c to $2 per word at the full rate. There is a defe·rred ha·lf-rate and a prefe·rred rate at e·xtra cost, also low rates for "cable letters" and "we·ek-end letters." The addre·ss and si·gnature have to be paid for. Money can be saved by cabling messages in code (co·de-messages). Pho·tographs for i·llustrating the news are sent by cable acro·ss the Atla·ntic by the pe·rforated-tape me·thod.

The *telepho·to pro·cess* used on the land lines for sending pi·ctures by te·legraph is a re·cent American inve·ntion. It produ·ces pra·ctically pe·rfect copies called telepho·tographs in the case of pho·tographs, di·agrams, drawings, fi·nger-prints of cri·minals, etc., and pho·tograms in the case of written messages transmi·tted in the sender's own ha·ndwriting. Pho·tograms can be sent in any language and re-produ·ced exa·ctly even if written in He·brew or Japane·se. Pe·rsonal greetings can be sent by te·legraph with your pho·tograph on the left and a message in your own ha·ndwriting on the right.

And what would you think of a single o·perator at a ke·yboard setting type by te·legraph in any number of printing o·ffices all over the country?

That's exa·ctly what the *telety·pesetter* acco·mplishes, an American inve·ntion just now coming into use. It o·perates alre·ady exi·sting ty·pesetting machi·nes but repla·ces the hu·man o·perator at the ke·yboard of each of them by an ele·ctrical me·chanism contro·lled by te·legraph. Its chief adva·ntage is in distri·buting the news to ne·wspaper-offices in a form a·lmost ready to put on the presses.

Where·ver you go in the cities you are likely to find *se·lf-winding ele·ctric clocks* on the walls of stores, re·staurants and other public places, belo·nging to the Western Union Te·legraph Co. They are fu·rnished and mainta·ined by the te·legraph-co·mpany for a small re·ntal. All such clocks in each city are contro·lled by a ma·ster-clock in the pri·ncipal te·legraph-o·ffice and corre·cted every hour by te·legraph, and the ma·ster-clocks in the di·fferent cities get the corre·ct time every day at noon by te·legraph from one of the United States na·val obse·rvatories.

The *te·lephone* is another American inve·ntion of vast impo·rtance, the bra·in-child of Prof. Alexa·nder Gra·ham Bell. We can speak at a di·stance thru the te·lephone, just as we send written messages by te·legraph. Dire·ctions for using the te·lephone can be found in the first few pages of the te·lephone-dire·ctory and in some cases on the i·nstrument itse·lf.

The te·lephone is far more po·pular here in the United States than the te·legraph is. Most people

are *te·lephone subscri·bers* and have a (tele)phone in their home or o·ffice or place of business. There is one in nearly every pri·vate house. Ho·usewives often order their meat and gro·ceries by te·lephone from the me·at-markets and gro·cery stores. They do a good deal of their vi·siting and go·ssiping by te·lephone, too. Students who have been a·bsent for a day or two someti·mes call up their instru·ctor on the (tele)phone to ask him what the le·sson i·s for the next day, or they may (tele)phone him after an examina·tion to ask him whether they passed or not. A good many farmers have te·lephone conne·ction with the nearest town.

There are *pu·blic te·lephones,* where any person can phone in a closed booth with muffled walls: the charge is 5c for a 5-mi·nute conversa·tion with some other pe·rson in the same city. Long-di·stance te·lephone conne·ction with other cities and with other countries (Ca·nada, Cu·ba, Me·xico, ·urope) is expe·nsive.

The *te·lephone sy·stem* of the United States be·lo·ngs to a number of pri·vate corpora·tions. In some places there are two ri·val co·mpanies doing bu·siness in the same city. Stati·stics show that the American te·lephone sy·stem is twice as exte·nsive and impo·rtant as the te·lephone sy·stems of all other countries put toge·ther.

The *wi·reless te·legraph,* an inve·ntion for sending messages thru the air on ele·ctromagne·tic waves, witho·ut using wire te·legraph-lines, is the inve·ntion of Guglie·lmo (Wi·lliam) Marco·ni, an

Ita·lian ele·ctrical engine·er. Messages can be sent all the way acro·ss the Atla·ntic by wi·reless. All steamers with accomoda·tions for fifty pa·ssengers or more e·ntering or cle·aring from American ports are requi·red by law to ca·rry a wi·reless installa·tion.

The wi·reless te·legraph transmi·ts no·thing but a·rbitrary sy·mbols, but a further deve·lopment of the pri·nciples u·nderlying it led to the inve·ntion of the *wi·reless te·lephone,* co·mmonly called the ra·dio, which ca·rries the vibra·tions of the hu·man voice and other sounds thru the air to li·steners fa·r awa·y. Withi·n 25 miles or so of a po·werful bro·adcasting station a cry·stal rece·iving set will often give satisfa·ction, but the only way you can "li·sten i·n" is with the he·ad-phones. With a good 5- or 6-tube ne·utrodyne or superhe·terodyne rece·iving set you can get stations 1,000 miles away on the loud speaker and more di·stant ones with the he·ad-phones.

Besi·des pu·blic bro·adcasting the *ra·diophone* can also be used for pe·rsonal telepho·nic communica·tion betwe·en indivi·duals and fu·rnishes the means of te·lephoning to a·ircraft from the land belo·w and to ships at sea. Linked up with the la·nd-wires, it provi·des te·lephone-service partly by wire and partly by wi·reless, as is the case in te·lephoning acro·ss the Atla·ntic. It has been found po·ssible to guide the course of ve·hicles and ve·ssels by ra·dio with no·body at all abo·ard. Pi·ctures, si·gnatures and thu·mb-prints can also be transmi·tted by the pho·toradio-pro·cess.

While pi·ctures on paper can be sent to di·stant places by te·legraph, te·lephone or ra·dio with some dela·y, the inve·ntion of *te·levision* makes it po·ssible for the eye to a·ctually see on a screen what is taking place at a di·stance at the same mo·ment and shows things in mo·tion and in co·lor. It has been shown po·ssible to see the face of a pe·rson at a di·stance at the same time as his voice comes over the te·lephone or ra·diophone. American engine·ers at work in perfe·cting the pro·cess expe·ct to have rece·iving appara·tus ava·ilable in a few years at mo·derate cost to bring pu·blic te·levision-bro·adcasts into pri·vate homes.

Besi·des its use in inve·ntions for commu·nicating at a di·stance *electri·city* is appli·ed to ele·ctric lighting and ele·ctric bells and as mo·tive power for machi·nery, automobi·les, stre·et-cars and ra·il-road-trains. A great many ele·ctric appli·ances and la·bor-saving machi·nes have been inve·nted by Ya·nkee ingenu·ity.

## XXI. Traveling by Land, Sea and Air.

I'm very fond of tra·veling, and I like to take a trip by rail or on a steamer at least once a year. People used to tra·vel in sta·ge-coaches, for there we·re no ra·ilroads in the United States till 1829. There are sti·ll a few stage lines in some parts of the Far West.

**Railroads.** — A *pa·ssenger-train* is made up of a number of pa·ssenger-cars (or coaches) for the

pa·ssengers, a ba·ggage-car, a ma·il-car, an expre·ss-car, a tender (for carrying water and fu·el) and an e·ngine (or locomo·tive).

American *pa·ssenger-cars* are longer than Europe·an cars and not divi·ded into compa·rtments.[1]

On so·me trains, there are *sle·eping-cars* (or "sleepers"), a *di·ning-car* and a *pa·rlor-car* (with ca·rpet, co·mfortable chairs and plenty of room). There is a spe·cial *observa·tion-car* atta·ched to the rear end of most of the fast thru trains; it has a spa·cious rear pla·tform, where pa·ssengers can sit in chairs, and the sides and rear end of the car are almost enti·rely made u·p of windows.

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[1] An a·isle runs thru the middle of American cars from o·ne end to the other, and there's a row of seats on each side of the aisle, facing fo·rward or ba·ckward, each seat wide enough to seat two pe·rsons. Pa·ssengers can wa·lk down the ce·ntral a·isle thru all the cars as far as the ba·ggage-car while the train is in mo·tion. There are no cars on American ra·ilroads with wooden seats; all the seats are cu·shioned and co·vered with leather or plush or woven bambo·o. On accomoda·tion trains and branch lines the cars are likely to be sha·bby, out-of-da·te affa·irs that aren't good enough any more to use on expre·ss-trains or on the main line. All pa·ssenger-coaches have a pla·tform at each end (with steps), a brake (on each pla·tform), doors (at the ends only), wi·ndows (at the sides), a floor, a top, racks for ha·nd-baggage, a si·gnal cord, spitto·ons (on the floor) and to·ilet-rooms for men and women at o·pposite ends of the car. The cars are heated in cold weather by pipes suppli·ed with steam from the e·ngine. They are lighted by electri·city at night and while the train passes thru tu·nnels. The wi·ndows of American cars are unu·sually large.

The western roads have *cha·ir-cars,* with an indivi·dual upho·lstered seat for each pa·ssenger. The "chairs" have a high back with a he·ad-rest and can be tilted back almost to a horizo·ntal posi·tion, so as to make a fairly co·mfortable place to sleep. No extra charge is made for riding in a cha·ir-car, but a (lower or upper) berth in a Pu·llman sleeper costs a few do·llars extra.

Ordinary pa·ssenger-cars are called *pa·ssenger-coaches* (or da·y-coaches); the one up in front next to the ba·ggage-car is rese·rved as a *smo·king-car* (or "smoker").

Every *fre·ight-train* is made u·p of a cabo·ose (for the condu·ctor and bra·kemen), a large number of fre·ight-cars (flat cars, box cars, refri·gerator-cars, sto·ck-cars), a tender and a locomo·tive.

A *locomo·tive* has at least 4 dri·ving-wheels, set in mo·tion by a shaft conne·cted to a pi·ston sliding ba·ckward and fo·rward in a cy·linder. The pi·ston owes its mo·tion to steam produ·ced in the boiler and carried from there into the cy·linder. It's the fi·reman's duty to keep u·p a good fire in the fi·rebox under the boiler. The engine·er runs the e·ngine. American ra·ilroad e·ngines have a big bell as well as a whistle mounted above the boiler between the cab and the smo·ke-stack. The bell is tolled at grade crossings and when the train is pulling out of or into a station. A pointed, sloping fender in front, called the pi·lot (or "co·w-

catcher"), keeps the track clear of (or free from) o·bstacles. The he·adlight lights the track at night.

All trains run on a *track* with two pa·rallel steel rails held in place on the ties by i·ron spikes. Mo·vable rails used to switch cars from o·ne track to ano·ther are called switches. They are in charge of a swi·tchman; he o·ccupies a very impo·rtant post, for the least (or slightest) ca·relessness on his part may cause a ra·ilroad a·ccident [or wreck].

Most *ra·ilroad a·ccidents* are the resu·lt of a colli·sion (when two trains run into each other) or a dera·ilment (when a train runs off the track). About 9,000 pe·rsons lose their lives in ra·ilroad a·ccidents every year in the United States; only about 300 of them are pa·ssengers — the rest are emplo·yees and pe·rsons tre·spassing on or crossing the tracks. The large number of a·ccidents is partly due to the fact that nearly half of the ra·ilroad lines of the world are in the United States.

There are *accommoda·tion trains,* that stop at all the small sta·tions; *expre·ss-trains,*[1] running at high speed and making stops only at a few of the most impo·rtant sta·tions; *thru trains,* that run thru· to the pa·ssenger's destina·tion witho·ut change

[1] Not to be confu·sed with the expre·ss co·mpanies me·ntioned at the end of Chapter XIX. Expre·ss-trains are fast trains for pa·ssengers and ma·y or ma·y no·t carry cars besi·des o·perated by the expre·ss co·mpanies.

(of cars); *excu·rsion trains,* carrying a large number of pe·rsons to the same destina·tion on some spe·cial occa·sion at redu·ced rates; *li·mited trains,* made u·p of exa·ctly the same number and same kind of cars on every trip, rega·rdless of the needs of the tra·ffic; *spe·cial trains,* making only one trip for some spe·cial pu·rpose; *mixed trains,* made u·p partly of pa·ssenger-coaches and partly of fre·ight-cars; *fre·ight-trains,* for hauling me·rchandise, grain, coal, lumber and live stock; and *ma·il-trains,* carrying nothing but the mail.

Some trains have *spe·cial names,* such as the "Su·nset Li·mited" (running to the Paci·fic Coast), the "Empire State Expre·ss" (the state of New York), the "Chica·go Flyer," the "20th Ce·ntury Li·mited" and the "Ca·nnon Ball Expre·ss."

For short di·stances only *first-class* ti·ckets are sold. For lo·ng jo·urneys *se·cond-class* tickets can someti·mes be had at a lower rate. Pa·ssengers with se·cond-class ti·ckets are not allo·wed to use the sta·ndard Pu·llman sle·eping-cars, but on the transcontine·ntal[1] roads spe·cial "to·urist sle·eping-cars" are provi·ded for se·cond-class pa·ssengers. Otherwise they have the same pri·vileges as fi·rst-class pa·ssengers and ride in the same coaches. In other words there are no spe·cial se·cond-class or

[1] The so·-ca·lled transcontine·ntal (rail)roads only run from the Mississi·ppi Va·lley to the Paci·fic Co·ast. There is no single ra·ilroad line and no thru train running all the way acro·ss the co·ntinent from one coast to the other.

thi·rd-class da·y-coaches on American ra·ilroads, tho se·cond-class ti·ckets are sold someti·mes.

Pa·ssengers buy their *ti·ckets* at the ti·cket-office, before they get on the train.[1]

A *round-tri·p ti·cket* is not always cheaper than two o·ne-way ti·ckets. Someti·mes round-tri·p ti·ckets are sold good going over one road and coming back some other way or good in o·ne dire·ction by rail and in the o·ther dire·ction by steamer.

Traveling is more expe·nsive in this country than in Europe because of the long di·stances. Persons incli·ned to eco·nomize by tra·veling third class don't have the opportu·nity here either. Our ra·ilroad fares per mile or ki·lometer are about the same as the first-class fares in other countries.

When I walk up (step up) to the ti·cket-window to get my ti·cket, I say to the ti·cket-a·gent in the *ti·cket-office:* "Chica·go, Wa·bash, one way" (by way of the Wa·bash R. R.) or "Chica·go, Alton,

[1] The ra·ilroad co·mpanies sell full ti·ckets (for pe·rsons over 12 years old), ha·lf-ti·ckets (for children), o·ne-way ti·ckets, round-tri·p ti·ckets (to go and come ba·ck), thru ti·ckets (to di·stant places, when the trip might be divi·ded into se·veral se·ctions and se·parate ti·ckets bought at di·fferent points on the way), coupo·n ti·ckets (thru tickets, reading over the lines of several di·fferent ra·ilroad co·mpanies, bearing a se·parate coupo·n for each se·ction of the jo·urney — such ti·ckets are someti·mes a yard long), excu·rsion ti·ckets (at redu·ced rates, ge·nerally for a round trip), commuta·tion ti·ckets (good for 10 or 20 trips betwe·en two stations) and mi·leage tickets (a long strip of paper divi·ded into 1,000 or 2,000 coupo·ns, each good for one mile, folded into a ca·rdboard cover).

round trip" (to Chica·go and back again via the Chica·go & Alton R. R.). If I only tell him I want a ti·cket to Chica·go, he'll ask me: "What road?" There are someti·mes a half dozen di·fferent ra·il-roads to choose among. In impo·rtant cities the ra·ilroads have down-to·wn ti·cket-offices in the bu·siness center of the city, where ti·ckets can be bought in adva·nce and informa·tion obta·ined.

Every ra·ilroad co·mpany has a printed *folder,* conta·ining a map of its lines and ti·me-tables of its trains. They are for free distribu·tion, and I never fail to get one at the down-to·wn ti·cket-office or else at the informa·tion bu·reau at the de·pot when I leave for a ra·ilroad trip. The ti·me-tables show when my train leaves and when I get to (or arri·ve at) my destina·tion. They show me, besides, all the stops the train makes on the way, and where I have to change cars.

After I've got my ti·cket, the next thing to do is to get my *ba·ggage checked.* Pa·ssengers go to the baggage room to have that atte·nded to. A ca·rdboard check is fa·stened with a piece of strong twine to the handle of each vali·se, su·itcase or trunk. There's a number printed on each check in big fi·gures, and it bears the names of the di·fferent ra·ilroad co·mpanies that are to carry the baggage, as well as the names of the se·nding sta·tion and the destina·tion. The emplo·yee gives me a du·pli-cate of each check, bearing the same number, to prese·nt when I claim deli·very of my baggage at

destina·tion, and he punches my ticket *BC* (baggage checked). Baggage checks are not used in Europe, and baggage is not checked over there; they paste a number and a printed label showing the destina·tion on each piece of baggage and give the pa·ssenger a printed slip of paper with a number as a rece·ipt.

The free allo·wance is very li·beral (150 lbs.), but *e·xcess ba·ggage* is charged for. It se·ldom happens that a tra·veler has any e·xcess to pay, unle·ss he's a drummer (or comme·rcial tra·veler) with a lot of sample trunks.

Such things as su·itcases, vali·ses (or sa·tchels or grips), ha·t-boxes, bla·nkets, umbre·llas, pa·ckages wrapped in paper and other *ha·nd-baggage* may be taken abo·ard the train. When a pa·ssenger fails to make good conne·ctions at some ju·nction point where he has to change cars, he may have his ha·nd-baggage checked in the pa·rcel room and spend a couple of hours seeing the town while he waits for his train.

There are wa·iting-rooms in all de·pots, as well as lunch rooms at impo·rtant sta·tions. Te·rminal stations (at the end of a main line) u·sually have a hote·l in them and there are de·pot hote·ls at ju·nction points, too. Most Americans make a disti·nction betwe·en a *sta·tion* and a *de·pot*. A station is a place, and a de·pot is a building. The di·fference can be seen in the following phrases:

*What station is thi·s? — What station do you get o·ff at? — How long do we stop at this station? — I see in the papers they're*

*going to tear thi·s depot down and build a ne·w one. — The wa·iting-rooms in this depot are so unco·mfortable. — The depot at Fulton Junction caught fire and burned down last night.*

Large de·pots, tho, are quite ge·nerally called stations, espe·cially if they are given a special name, such as the "Cana·l Street Station" or the "N. Y. Ce·ntral Station."

Before they get on the train, pa·ssengers have to show their ti·ckets to the *ga·tekeeper*. He makes sure they are not getting on the wrong train and punches their tickets with a *G*, before he lets them pass thru the gate.

When the train's ready to start, the *condu·ctor* calls out "All abo·ard!" and gives a si·gnal to the engine·er. The engine·er opens the throttle, and the train pulls out of the station. The condu·ctor soon goes thru the train to take up ti·ckets. In excha·nge for his ticket, each pa·ssenger gets a ha·t-check, a piece of co·lored ca·rdboard stuck in his ha·tband, with pu·nchmarks to show the condu·ctor at a glance how far he's going.

**Bus-Lines.** — Large, co·mfortable a·utobusses ca·rrying pa·ssengers ge·nerally at lower rates than the ra·ilroads travel the smooth paved a·uto-highways on re·gular sche·dules and make se·rious i·nroads into ra·ilroad tra·ffic. You can go a·lmost a·nywhere by bus as well as by rail.

**Steamers.** — When the weather's fine, an o·cean vo·yage or a trip on a river ste·amboat or a lake steamer has a charm of its o·wn. The big

*transatla·ntic liners* are eno·rmous affa·irs; some of them me·asure over 900 feet in length and have accommoda·tions for over 3,500 pe·rsons (pa·s-sengers and crew); they make an a·verage speed of 25 knots (46.5 ki·lometers) an hour. The fastest o·cean liners make the run from Cherbourg to New York in less than 5 days. The first steamer to cross the Atla·ntic was a vessel of only 350 tons built in New York; it was on the way 26 days.

The pri·ncipal fe·atures of an *o·cean steamer* are the prow (the front end), the stern (the back end), the decks, the keel, the rudder, the prope·llers, the fo·remast, the ma·inmast, the mi·zzenmast (the one nearest the stern), the rigging, the smo·kestacks, se·veral po·werful steam-e·ngines, the co·mpasses and the chrono·meters. There are deck chairs (or folding chairs) and benches on the decks to sit on and berths in the sta·terooms to sleep in. Pa·s-sengers in the first ca·bin have better accommoda·-tions than se·cond-cabin and ste·erage pa·ssengers.

Ships weigh a·nchor when they leave a *port*. In di·fficult cha·nnels (or passages) they take on a pi·lot to dire·ct the man at the wheel how to steer, or they are towed by a tug. When they arri·ve at a port or in a ha·rbor, they either cast a·nchor and ride at a·nchor, or else they tie up at their dock.

Ships carry three *flags*. The one flying from the top of the fo·remast shows the nationa·lity of the port the ship is bound for; a ho·use-flag bear-ing the e·mblems of the ste·amship co·mpany flies

from the top of the ma·inmast; the flag low down at the stern i·ndicates the nationa·lity the ve·ssel belo·ngs to.

An unwe·lcome expe·rience on board is *se·a-sickness*. The only sure way to avo·id it is to stay on land. When fresh air, modera·tion in eating and drinking, i·nteresting books and — last but not least — a little co·urage fail, all other preve·n-tives as a rule are of no be·nefit, either. I'm a pretty good sa·ilor, and I can stand a good deal of rough weather without getting (sea)sick, tho I'd rather have a smooth (or qui·et) vo·yage than a rough one.

With the exce·ption of bo·na-fide re·sidents of Ca·nada, Cu·ba, Me·xico and Ne·wfoundland, for-eigners coming to the United States have to pay a *head tax* of $8, colle·cted thru the ste·amship co·mpany at the time they buy their ti·ckets.

Under the *immigra·tion laws* they will not be allo·wed to land unle·ss they have money enough on them to carry them from the port where they land to their fi·nal destina·tion, and to pay their expe·nses till they are able to secu·re emplo·yment.[1]

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[1] Chine·se la·borers, co·ntract la·borers, cri·minals, a·narchists, poly·gamists, insa·ne persons, epile·ptics, consu·mptives, persons su·ffering from conta·gious dise·ases, paupers, profe·ssional be·ggars and all persons likely to be una·ble to earn a living on acco·unt of phy·sical or me·ntal dise·ase or disabi·lity are refu·sed admi·ssion to the United States by the immigra·tion offi·cials; they are sent back to the country they ca·me from, at the expe·nse of the ste·amship co·mpany, on the same steamer that brought them.

Pa·ssengers on steamers from fo·reign ports, befo·re they arri·ve in the United States, will be fu·rnished with printed blanks by an o·fficer of the ship, to make their *cu·stoms declara·tion*[1] in writing.

Pa·ssengers have to open their baggage on the pier, and a cu·stoms inspe·ctor is deta·iled to make a ri·gorous examina·tion of it. When du·tiable a·rticles are found that have not been decla·red, they may be co·nfiscated, and the tra·veler may have to pay a heavy fine for smu·ggling, besides, if it appe·ars his inte·ntion was to defra·ud the cu·stoms. When the *cu·stoms inspe·ction* is over, the inspe·ctor pastes a gummed la·bel on each piece of baggage, bearing the inscri·ption "U. S. Cu·stoms" and the si·gnature of the inspe·ctor, with a se·rial number and the date and hour stamped on.

**Balloons** are made of va·rnished silk or some other light, a·ir-tight mate·rial. They are filled with

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[1] All a·rticles should be decla·red that are not in the na·ture of ho·usehold goods in use at least a year or pe·rsonal effe·cts ne·cessary for the co·mfort and conve·nience of the pa·ssenger. Re·sidents of the United States must decla·re all a·rticles bought in fo·reign countries, no matter what their na·ture and rega·rdless of whether they have been used or not, and not more than $100 worth of such goods will be admi·tted free of du·ty in any case. Fo·reigners are not su·bject to any such limita·tion. No one is allo·wed to bring i·n a·nything inte·nded for o·ther pe·rsons or for sale without paying duty on it. Every pa·ssenger over 18 is enti·tled to bring i·n 50 ciga·rs or 300 cigare·ttes or 3 pounds of smoking toba·cco, for his own use, free of cu·stoms duty and inte·rnal re·venue tax.

hy·drogen gas, so as to rise and float in the air. A ballo·on asce·nsion is a sight worth seeing. The ballo·on carries a (wi·ckerwork) car atta·ched to it. The ballo·onists are in the car, as well as the ba·llast (bags filled with sand), a·nchors, te·lescopes, co·mpasses, maps, baro·meters, rope ladders, a supply· of provi·sions (or e·atables) and a pa·rachute. Ca·ptive ballo·ons are fa·stened with a rope and only rise to a ce·rtain height.

**Dirigibles.** — Lighter-than-air di·rigibles are a further deve·lopment of the ballo·on, which could only drift with the wind. There are no·n-rigid, se·mi-rigid and ri·gid types. He·lium-gas is used now for infla·ting their ga·sbags for sa·fety, for it will not burn or explo·de like the hy·drogen-gas they used to use.

The big *ciga·r-shaped a·irships* the Ge·rmans deve·loped as their spe·cialty have a ri·gid fra·mework with a number of eno·rmous ga·sbags conce·aled insi·de, each in a se·parate compa·rtment. They have po·werful mo·tors driving se·veral prope·llers and travel thru the air at about the same speed as the fastest expre·ss-trains on the ra·ilroads. They are fitted with rudders that steer them with pe·rfect ease even in a strong he·adwind.

**Airplanes.** — The branch of aerona·utics that deals with heavier-than-air craft is called avia·tion, beca·use a·irplanes i·mitate a kite or a bird ("avis" in Latin) more than they do a ballo·on. The Wright brothers (Americans) were the first suc-

ce·ssful a·viators. A·irplanes are heavier than the air and are held up as well as driven fo·rward by the force of their mo·tors and prope·llers. Some of them glide thru the air resting on one plane (mo·noplanes), rese·mbling a bird with its wings spread; others have two suppo·rting planes (bi·-planes), and they look more like a bo·x-kite. The pi·lot sits in the co·ckpit facing the i·nstrument-board near the front end of the fu·selage (body of the a·irplane), with the contro·ls withi·n easy reach. Rudders and e·levators attached to the tail and mo·vable a·ilerons at the tips of the wings make it po·ssible to guide the flight.

The si·mplest and least expe·nsive (or most inexpe·nsive) kind of a·irplane is the *glider* (or sa·ilplane). You can buy one for the price of a cheap automo·bile. It has no mo·tor and needs no fuel, for it takes its flying e·nergy from the wind.

Another i·nteresting type of a·irplane is the *se·aplane* (or flying boat), equi·pped to rest on a wa·ter-surface when it is not flying. Its fu·selage has the form of a boat, suppo·rted by ponto·ons at the sides to give it stabi·lity on the water.

An *amphi·bian* is an a·irplane that is e·qually at home on land or water when it is not in the air flying. It can take off or come down on any smooth su·rface.

The *gy·roplane* (a·utogiro, "flying wi·ndmill") is built about like any other a·irplane exce·pt that

it has a ro·tor of four fa·nlike blades mounted on a ro·tor-mast above the co·ckpit.[1]

The giant tri·motored *a·irliners* are ca·bin-airplanes of ama·zing size and soli·dity, with accomoda·tions for 12 or more pa·ssengers. The ca·bin has an aisle in the middle of it, running from front to back, with a row of co·mfortable chairs on each side by the wi·ndows. There are racks overhe·ad for ha·nd-baggage. The ca·bin is made so·undproof to keep out the noise of the mo·tors and prope·llers and can be heated or cooled. Running water and to·ilet-faci·lities are provi·ded, and the liner is equi·pped with ra·dio.

The *a·irways* that pa·ssenger-carrying a·irplanes follow in flight are well-marked routes that have been esta·blished with care and at great expe·nse. Each one is made up of a chain of eme·rgency landing fields 30 miles or so apa·rt, to be used for sa·fety in case of need, and po·werful be·acon-lights say every 10 miles for use at night. At the te·rminal sta·tions there are well-deve·loped a·irports with long ru·nways and su·itable buildings for

[1] The mo·tor is conne·cted with the prope·ller but not with the ro·tor. The ro·tor turns of itse·lf from its co·ntact with the air. It deve·lops great lifting power and exe·rts a ste·adying i·nfluence on the flight, eli·minating such a·ccidents as no·se-dives, spins and cra·ckups. The gy·roplane in taking off needs only a short ru·nway and rises at a steep slant but not quite ve·rtically. It is ca·pable of stopping still and hovering in mi·dair and of coming nearly straight down and landing gently at any parti·cular spot witho·ut running all over the landing field.

handling the tra·ffic and caring for i·ncoming and o·utgoing planes.

Pa·ssengers on an a·irliner make their reserva·tions in adva·nce. The rates of fare are not much more than is paid on the ra·ilroads for the best accomoda·tions. When a·irminded tra·velers ready for the *flight* arri·ve at the a·irport, they find the mo·tors of their plane alre·ady running gently to warm them up and the prope·llers humming. To make sure of keeping the load withi·n safe li·mits e·verything is weighed befo·re being taken abo·ard: the a·irmail, expre·ss-packages, ha·nd-baggage (25 to 30 pounds allo·wed free) and even the pa·ssengers themse·lves. When e·verything is ready for the ta·keoff, the plane moves fo·rward on its wheels with a sweeping rush down the ru·nway, gra·dually gains mome·ntum and takes the air so gently the pa·ssengers at first hardly re·alize they are flying. As the liner climbs higher and higher, they are surpri·sed to find they have no feeling of great height. People o·rdinarily su·bject to an une·asy feeling of fear or disco·mfort at being in high places are enti·rely free from any such sensa·tion. They have only an asto·nishing feeling of stabi·lity. The a·irliner heads for its destina·tion in a straight line and travels twice as fast as the fastest expre·ss-trains, but the pa·ssengers, strange to say, have no sensa·tion of treme·ndous speed. It seems to them they are only floating le·isurely in the sky. They have nothing near them to

judge either height or speed by, no sta·ndard of compa·rison.

It is a wo·nderful expe·rience for pa·ssengers on their first flight to watch the panora·ma of the earth's su·rface spread out belo·w them. For se·asoned *a·irtravelers* the no·velty of the view wears off, and they may prefe·r to spend their time writing letters, reading or playing cards. Refre·shments are served to the pa·ssengers by the ste·ward and re·gular meals when ne·cessary. By and by the a·irport at the destina·tion is sighted. The plane glides of its own mome·ntum the last few miles, with its power shut off, and soon is rolling smoothly up the a·irport-ru·nway. It was an i·nteresting trip and a clean trip — no dust, dirt, smoke or cinders.

The a·irlines and the ra·ilroads have arra·nged sche·dules of *combi·ned air and rail travel* for long di·stances to ena·ble tra·velers to go by rail at night in a sle·eping-car and to change in the morning to an a·irliner for the day. When evening comes, they transfe·r again to a sle·eping-car for the night and catch another a·irliner the next morning. It takes only two days to cross the co·ntinent that way.

## XXII. Transportation in Cities.

**Ferries.** — In cities built on the water fe·rry-boats carry pa·ssengers from the main part of the city acro·ss the river or bay to the su·burbs. There

are a number of places, too, where it has not been po·ssible to build ra·ilroad bridges, and at such places enti·re trains are transfe·rred acro·ss a wide river or a bay on big fe·rry-boats with a number of tracks on their deck and one se·ction of the train on each track.

**Subways.** — Ele·ctric ra·ilroads are o·perated in va·rious cities thru tu·nnels constru·cted for the pu·rpose, passing under the streets and buildings.

**Elevated Railroads.** — In se·veral of the largest cities other ele·ctric ra·ilroads are o·perated high above the le·vel of the street, so as not to interfe·re with su·rface tra·ffic. The quickest way to get down-to·wn is to take the "L" (an e·levated train) or the su·bway, espe·cially if you get an expre·ss-train (one that doesn't stop at every sta·tion). The e·levated roads are o·perated on the "third rail" system. There are two tra·ction rails for the wheels of the cars to run on and a third rail asi·de of the track to fu·rnish the ele·ctric cu·rrent to the motors. The cars have me·tal shoes or wire brushes fa·stened to their trucks that brush along the third rail, closing the ci·rcuit and taking up the cu·rrent.

**Street-cars.** — Street-ra·ilways are o·perated over steel rails laid in the pa·vement of the streets. The cars are called "su·rface-cars" someti·mes, to avo·id confu·sion with the e·levated roads and the su·bways; o·rdinarily they are called "stre·et-cars" or just "cars" for short. Most of them are *tro·lley-cars* driven by ele·ctric mo·tors that rece·ive their

power from a wire overhead. Horse-cars are no longer used. In several American cities on the Pacific Coast *cable-cars* are in use on some of the hilliest streets. They are street-cars moved by an endless cable concealed under a slot in the pavement between the rails. The cable is in motion all the time. When the gripman grips the cable, the car moves along with it. The speed of all the cars on the same line is uniform, up hill or down hill, as long as they are attached to the cable.

If you ask for a *transfer* at the time you pay your fare, you can continue your trip on some connecting line without paying another fare (or paying again). Transfers are printed slips of paper with the line and the hour and the direction of travel indicated by punchmarks.

The street-cars are packed full during the *rush hours* of the morning and evening, carrying twice as many passengers sometimes as they have seating capacity for: the rest have to stand up in the aisle (straphangers) and on the platforms or even on the steps now and then, an abuse that would not be permitted in any European country.

**Busses.** — Autobusses (or motorbusses, also motorcoaches) are driven by a gasoline motor. They don't need to have a track; they can run on any part of the pavement. They are generally double-deck affairs, carrying passengers on top as well as inside. When the weather is nice, most

people prefe·r the top so as to enjo·y the fresh air and the view. The fare on top or insi·de a bus is the same.

**Baggage Transfer.** — Trunks and other pieces of heavy and bulky baggage are transfe·rred from one part of the city to another and to and from the ra·ilroad de·pots by ba·ggage tra·nsfer co·mpanies, using mo·tor-trucks or expre·ss-wagons (ba·ggage-transfer wa·gons) drawn by horses.

**Cycling.** — Bi·cycles are used strictly for their uti·lity at pre·sent. As a fad their place has been taken by automo·biles and mo·tor-cycles (strong and heavy built bi·cycles, driven by a gasoli·ne mo·tor).

**Motor-Cars.** — With an automo·bile (or mo·tor-car) you can be indepe·ndent: you can go a·nywhere you please and whene·ver you get re·ady and tra·vel fast or slow as you prefe·r and make stops where·ver you like. Mo·tor-trucks and deli·very cars are used a good deal, too, for comme·rcial pu·rposes. Mo·tor-cars are driven by ele·ctric or gasoli·ne mo·tors, a few even by steam, and some of them tra·vel faster than expre·ss-trains. In a ra·cing-car spe·edway re·cords of over 200 miles an hour have been made.

**Taxicabs.** — Ta·xicabs (or ta·xis) are automo·biles spe·cially fitted up for ca·rrying paying pa·ssengers. Every ta·xi ca·rries a taxi·meter to me·asure the di·stance tra·veled and to i·ndicate the fare to be paid. Beca·use of the expe·nse most

people rese·rve the use of ta·xicabs for eme·rgencies and spe·cial occa·sions. Others consi·der it more econo·mical to use the ta·xis li·berally rather than buy a car of their own and pay for its u·pkeep.

## XXIII. The Country and the People.

**Area.** — The na·tional doma·in covers about 3¾ mi·llion square miles, a te·rritory just a tri·fle smaller than Europe and a little larger than Brazi·l or Ca·nada. The na·tional te·rritory inclu·des the Island of Guam, the Hawa·iian Islands, American Samo·a, the Phi·lippine Islands (or the Phi·lippines), Po·rto Ri·co and the Vi·rgin Islands of the United States.[1] The i·slands are sma·ll compa·red with the a·rea of the contine·ntal te·rritory. The Cana·l Zone on the Isthmus of Pa·nama and the Te·rritory of Ala·ska are deta·ched sections of American te·rritory on the co·ntinent.

**Mountains.** — The Appala·chian chain of mo·untains exte·nds thru the eastern part of the country in the same ge·neral dire·ction as the At·la·ntic coast line, but at a consi·derable di·stance from the o·cean. In the Far West the Rocky Mo·untains and their fo·ot-hills o·ccupy a wide belt running north and south and exte·nding into Ca·nada and Me·xico. The Andes of South America are a continua·tion of the Rocky Mo·untains. The

[1] The Vi·rgin Islands were bought from De·nmark in 1917. Before that they were known as the Danish West Indies. Some other islands of the Vi·rgin group belong to Great Bri·tain.

Coast Range exte·nds along the Paci·fic coast not far from the o·cean. The Sie·rra Madre, as well as its continua·tion no·rthward, the Casca·de Range, runs pa·rallel to the Paci·fic, but at a di·stance of several hundred miles from the coast. The mo·untains in the eastern part of the United States are rather low and well covered with vegeta·tion. But the Rocky Mo·untains in the West rise to a great eleva·tion above se·a-level; they are bare and rugged and picture·sque. In a good many of the far western states, the sno·w-capped peaks and mo·untain ranges seen on the hori·zon at all se·asons of the year lend a maje·stic charm to the la·ndscape.

**Rivers.** — The pri·ncipal river is the Mississi·ppi, nearly 3,000 miles long, draining the great ce·ntral plain between the Appala·chian Mo·untains in the East and the Rocky Mo·untains in the West. It empties into the Gulf of Me·xico. Its pri·ncipal tri·butaries are the Ohio (950 miles long), the Misso·uri (over 3,000 miles long) and the Arkansas (over 1,500 miles long). The Mississi·ppi is na·vigable for o·cean ste·amers as far as New Orleans and for river ste·amboats thruo·ut the greater part of its length. — The Rio Grande is the bo·undary-line between Me·xico and the United States for a consi·derable di·stance. — The Colu·mbia River is noted for its scenic beauty, as well as its comme·rcial impo·rtance and its sa·lmon fi·sheries.

**The Great Lakes.** — Five imme·nse freshwater lakes, with an a·verage length of nearly 300

miles each, lie on the north, connected with each other. One of them is enti·rely in American te·rritory, and the other four are on the interna·tional bo·undary. The water of four of them passes over the fa·mous Nia·gara Falls on its way to the sea. The fact that the to·nnage of ve·ssels passing thru the Sault Sainte Marie Shi·p-Cana·l, the ga·teway to Lake Supe·rior, is four or five times the tonnage on the Sue·z Cana·l, gives a good ide·a of the comme·rcial impo·rtance of the great lakes. Most of the freight carried on lake steamers is grain, i·ron ore and coal.

There is, besi·des, a big salt-water lake in Utah, at an a·ltitude of over 4,000 feet, covering more land than the enti·re a·rea of the state of De·laware. Great Salt Lake drains an exte·nsive ba·sin with little ra·infall. It has no o·utlet to the sea. Most of the surro·unding country is more or less a·rid or enti·rely de·sert.

**Canals.** — The waters of the great lakes commu·nicate thru cana·ls with the Mississi·ppi, the Ohi·o, the Hu·dson and with Che·sapeake Bay. They are not deep shi·p-cana·ls and have lost the comme·rcial impo·rtance they had at o·ne time. They are una·ble to compe·te with the railroads at pre·sent for o·rdinary freight, and they only carry heavy and bulky freight of little va·lue, such as i·ron ore and coal. They use open cana·l-boats, towed by a mule or a horse walking along the to·w-path at the side of the cana·l. There are

several shi·p-cana·ls for steamers of heavy draft conne·cting the great lakes at places where the na·tural cha·nnels are insuffi·cient. One of them, the We·lland Shi·p-Cana·l, in Cana·dian te·rritory, provi·des a means of getting past Nia·gara Falls and the ra·pids in the Nia·gara River. The Pa·nama Cana·l, conne·cting the Atla·ntic Ocean with the Paci·fic at the Isthmus of Pa·nama, was opened to tra·ffic in 1914. It took ten years to build it.

**East and West.** — It's not easy to say where the "East" ends and the "West" begins. People in the Atla·ntic Coast states still speak of the upper Mississi·ppi Va·lley as part of the West, and it wa·s the West at o·ne time in the early hi·story of the country (now often called the "Middle West"). People living on the Pacific coast and in the Rocky Mo·untain states refe·r to the same re·gion as being in the East. Chica·go and Saint Lo·uis are western cities to some Americans and eastern cities to others. The East is not co·mmonly understo·od to inclu·de any of the southern states. The Far West includes the Pacific coast and the Rocky Mo·untain re·gion, the same te·rritory that is someti·mes refe·rred to fami·liarly and dispa·ragingly as the "Wild and Woolly West," tho it isn't as wild and woolly no·w as it used to be, and co·wboys and wild Indians are getting scarce.

**The Southwest.** — The Southwe·st was co·lonized ori·ginally by Spain. Later it formed part of the Me·xican Repu·blic. A consi·derable po·rtion of

the people in that section of the country still speak Spa·nish, and the large number of Spanish geogra·phical names show the part Spa·nish-speaking people took in its early hi·story. Santa Fe (founded by Spa·niards in 1605), the ca·pital of New Me·xico, is the se·cond oldest city in the United States.[1] The Southwe·st is a re·gion of little ra·infall, and the land is mostly a·rid. It is being brought under cultiva·tion by irriga·tion.

**North and South.** — The "North" and the "South" inclu·de only the states that co·nstituted the North and the South about seventy years ago, before the deve·lopment of the Far West. At pre·sent it would be more exa·ct to say the "Northe·ast" and the "Southe·ast." The South produ·ces co·tton, toba·cco, su·gar-cane, rice and lumber. Corn, wheat and oats are the pri·ncipal crops grown in the North. During the early hi·story of the United States, the South was an agricu·ltural se·ction, using slave la·bor on large planta·tions. In the North farming was carried on ge·nerally on smaller farms by the owners themse·lves with the help of their own sons, and more atte·ntion was given to co·mmerce and manufa·cturing. Sla·very existed in the North as well as in the South in colo·nial times, but it was gra·dually aba·ndoned

[1] The oldest city in the United States is Saint Augustine, Flo·rida, founded by Spa·niards in 1565, popula·tion 10,190 by the Flo·rida state ce·nsus of 1925. Santa Fe is a small town of about 6,000 popula·tion.

as unpro·fitable in the North. Se·ctional ri·valry between the North and the South, growing out of their o·pposite i·nterests, led up to the great Ci·vil War (1861-65). Slavery was abo·lished as a resu·lt of that war. Since the war, the South has been deve·loping indu·strially and comme·rcially, and a·griculture is still carried on pro·fitably, but with hired labor.

**New England.** — The six states to the east of the State of New York in the extre·me northe·ast corner of the country are called New England. They are small states, all of them. The coloniza·tion of New England bega·n in 1620. Since that time the soil has been nearly exha·usted in some places, and there are a good many aba·ndoned farms and a few dese·rted vi·llages in New England today. A little over a hundred years ago New England was a very impo·rtant shi·p-building and shipping center, and the Ya·nkee trader was a fami·liar fi·gure in all the se·aports of the world. No other country did more shipping then than the United States, but today the American me·rchant mari·ne o·ccupies se·cond place.[1] New England is noted today for its impo·rtance as a manufa·cturing re·gion and for its wealth and cu·lture.

[1] About half of the pre·sent American to·nnage is enga·ged in the fi·sheries and on the great lakes and rivers and in the co·ast-wise trade. American co·mmerce with other countries is carried on mostly in ships of other nationa·lities

**Population.** — There were 5,300,000 people in the United States acco·rding to the ce·nsus of 1800. The fi·gures for the 1930 ce·nsus are not ava·ilable yet. A national ce·nsus is taken once every ten years. The next one will be in 1940. The population for 1928 has been estima·ted at 120,000,000, not including Ala·ska, the Cana·l Zone and the i·sland posse·ssions. The popula·tion of the United States is greater now than the combi·ned popula·tion of all other American countries. For a long time about a mi·llion i·mmigrants landed in the United States every year, mostly from the Germa·nic and Ce·ltic co·untries of Europe, but a good many of them went back to the "old country" later. At pre·sent pu·blic opi·nion is ho·stile to immigra·tion, and the nu·mber of i·mmigrants coming i·n has been cut down by unfa·vorable laws.

**European Elements.** — Just about half of the American people are of English desce·nt. The Ge·rman e·lement stands next in impo·rtance, and the Irish[1] e·lement ranks third. The English e·lement is losing ground for se·veral re·asons. In the first place Americans of English desce·nt ge·nerally have small fa·milies, and in the second place immigra·tion from England has fallen off, while

[1] The Irish are not a Germa·nic people like the English. They are Celts, and so are We·lshmen and Hi·ghland Sco·tchmen. Celtic di·alects, as well as English, are still spoken in Ireland, Wales and Sco·tland. The Celtic element in the United States is mostly Irish.

other Europe·an countries are taking the lead now. America was rather cosmopo·litan even in colo·nial times. Ge·rmans, Dutch, French Hu·guenots and Swedes, as well as English-speaking people, settled in the te·rritory of the ori·ginal thirte·en co·lonies. The United States has expa·nded since then into consi·derable te·rritory co·lonized ori·ginally by France and Spain. A few Americans desce·nded from the ori·ginal co·lonists are still unable to understa·nd English and only speak Spanish or French or Pennsylva·nia Dutch (a German country di·alect, brought over to America by settlers from the Pala·tinate and other parts of Germany and Swi·tzerland in the early part of the 18th ce·ntury and still spoken mixed with English by their desce·ndants in Pennsylva·nia).

**Canadians.**[1] — Over a mi·llion Cana·dians are re·sidents of the United States. French Cana·dian working men come across the border in consi·derable numbers from the ne·ighboring pro·vince of Quebe·c to work in the fa·ctories of New England, where wages are higher. The English-speaking Cana·dians in the United States outnu·mber the

[1] Ca·nada has about the same a·rea as the United States, but a much smaller popula·tion (e·stimated at 10,000,000 for 1930). About a third of its pre·sent population is made u·p of Fre·nch-speaking people, desce·ndants of the ori·ginal French co·lonists. French and English are both re·cognized by the go·vernment as offi·cial la·nguages. Ca·nada beca·me British te·rritory not long before the American War of Indepe·ndence (also called the Revolu·tionary War).

French two to one; they are scattered all over the country and enga·ged in all sorts of occupa·tions. There has been some e·migration from the United States into Ca·nada, too, at di·fferent times. When the American revolu·tion broke out, a consi·derable number of lo·yalists (lo·yal British su·bjects) e·migrated in disgu·st from what is now the te·rritory of the United States and settled in Ca·nada, where they became the nu·cleus of the English-speaking popula·tion. In re·cent years a good many American farmers have gone over from the western states to settle on go·vernment lands in the Cana·dian Northwe·st.

**Chinese.** — There are about 60,000 Chi·namen in the United States. They are nearly all la·undrymen, ga·rdeners, cooks and re·staurant keepers. Most of them live in the West, and there are a few small places out there where they outnu·mber the whi·te popula·tion. There would be a good many more Chi·namen in the country than there are, if it wasn't for the fact that the immigra·tion of Chine·se working men has been prohi·bited by law for a good many years.

**Negroes.** — There are over 10,000,000 pe·rsons in the United States at present desce·nded from ne·gro slaves brought over from Africa. Ne·gro sla·very exi·sted in the South until 1863. The most of the ne·groes (or "niggers") still live in the South. There are a good many of them in the North, too, but very few in the Far West. The darkies

in the towns live in another part of town from the white people. In the South most of them are still illi·terate and live in the country.

**Indians.** — The "re·dskins," the only real Americans in the strictest sense of the word, are scantily represe·nted in the pre·sent popula·tion with about 300,000 people, speaking 250 di·alects. In some of the states there are no I·ndians at all that can be re·cognized as I·ndians. Most of them live in three or four of the western states on "reserva·tions" set asi·de for their use when they gave up more exte·nsive tracts of land for se·ttlement by white people. None of them are comple·te sa·vages any more; they are all more or less under the i·nfluence of the white man's civiliza·tion.

## XXIV. American Cities.

The United States is a country of *large cities*[1] se·parated by great di·stances. The cities grow ra·pidly in popula·tion by attra·cting people from

[1] Here are the popula·tion fi·gures for the largest American cities, inclu·ding all that are me·ntioned in this chapter, as e·stimated for 1928:

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Ba·ltimore, Md. | 830,400 | New O·rleans, La. | 429,400 |
| Bo·ston, Mass. | 799,200 | New Yo·rk, N. Y. | 6,017,500 |
| Bu·ffalo, N. Y. | 555,800 | Philade·lphia, Pa. | 2,084,200 |
| Chica·go, Ill. | 3,157,400 | Pi·ttsburgh, Pa. | 673,800 |
| Cle·veland, O. | 1,010,300 | St. Lo·uis, Mo. | 848,100 |
| Detro·it, Mich. | 1,378,900 | San Franci·sco, Cal. | 585,300 |
| Los Angeles, Cal. | 1,420,000 | Wa·shington, D. C. | 552,000 |
| Milwa·ukee, Wis. | 544,200 | | |

the farms and small towns as the country beco·mes more and more indu·strialized, also by immigra·tion from fo·reign countries and by the na·tural i·ncrease of the e·xcess of births over deaths. It so·metimes happens that an American city doubles its popula·tion in ten years or less.

**New York.** — Ho·lland Dutch settlers founded New York City in 1614. They called the place New Amsterdam, but the name was changed later when the English took posse·ssion of the co·lony.

The popula·tion of New York was only 60,000 in 1800. Toda·y it is the se·cond largest city in the world and the world's greatest se·aport.

Steamers appro·aching the port of New York in the da·ytime may pass within sight of as many as a hundred other ships during the day, coming i·n and going o·ut to all parts of the world. A monume·ntal bronze sta·tue[1] of "Li·berty Enli·ghtening the World" rises on one of the i·slands in the ha·rbor, holding up high its torch (lighted at night) more than 300 feet above the water. The compa·ct line of sky·scrapers of the lower city, rising on the hori·zon, is an impo·sing spe·ctacle from the decks of steamers entering the port.

[1] The fa·mous Li·berty sta·tue, by the French scu·lptor Bartholdi, was prese·nted to the American people by the French Repu·blic, to comme·morate the hu·ndredth annive·rsary of the indepe·ndence of the United States. It is large enough to acco·mmodate 40 pe·rsons in the hollow space insi·de of its head. A smaller reprodu·ction of it stands in Pa·ris on an i·sland in the Seine.

Greater New York is made up of five se·ctions called bo·roughs; they were indepe·ndent towns at one time. The bo·rough of Manha·ttan is an i·sland washed by three rivers and inclu·des the bu·siness center of the city. The need of conne·cting Manha·ttan with the ne·ighboring te·rritory acro·ss the three rivers is making New York a city of monume·ntal bridges, inclu·ding the fa·mous Bro·oklyn bridge, long consi·dered one of the wonders of the mo·dern world, and se·veral other suspe·nsion bridges even larger and more impo·sing.

Tu·nnels under the bed of the Hu·dson River and ferries also conne·ct the city with the su·burbs across the river to the west in the state of New Je·rsey, where a mi·llion more people live who are vi·rtually New Yorkers but can never be consi·dered offi·cially as inha·bitants of the city.

The best-known streets of New York are Bro·adway (the leading street for ge·neral bu·siness), Wall Street (the fina·ncial ce·nter of America, o·ccupied by the United States su·btreasury and the stock excha·nge and banks and brokers' o·ffices), Fifth Avenue (an aristocra·tic re·sidence street) and the Bo·wery (a busy street with an e·levated ra·ilroad, cheap stores and cheap shows).

The largest church in New York and one of the largest and finest in America is the Ca·tholic cathe·dral, built and de·corated in Go·thic style and de·dicated to Saint Pa·trick, the pa·tron saint of Ireland. The monume·ntal new Epi·scopal cathe·-

dral of Saint John the Divi·ne stands on Mo·rning-side Heights in the northern part of the city.[1]

The principal centers of art and learning in New York City are the Metropo·litan Muse·um of Art (pe·rmanent colle·ctions of paintings and sta·tuary), the Na·tional Aca·demy of Desi·gn (where an exhibi·tion of re·cent works of art by conte·m-porary American a·rtists is held once a year), the Metropo·litan Opera House (the home of grand o·pera), the free muni·cipal Pu·blic Li·brary (nearly 3,000,000 bound vo·lumes), New York Unive·rsity and Colu·mbia Unive·rsity.

**Chicago.** — In 1830 there were only twelve houses and a hundred people in Chica·go; the pre·s-ent popula·tion is three mi·llion. Chicago is the greatest live stock, grain and lumber ma·rket in the world. It has a magni·ficent system of exte·nsive parks, conne·cted with each other by bo·ulevards (or pa·rkways). The city is built on the shore of Lake Mi·chigan (one of the great lakes). There are pu·blic bathing beaches at di·fferent places along the lake front i·nside the city li·mits.

The bu·siness center of the city is known as the *loop* (*di·strict*). The loop is a re·ctangle of e·levated ra·ilroad tracks, enclo·sing the pri·ncipal o·ffice and shopping se·ction of the city. There are

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[1] In the British Empire the Epi·scopal Church is known as the Church of England. About 5% of the Pro·testants in the United States are Episcopa·lians.

e·levated roads running to the center of the city from di·fferent dire·ctions, and the di·fferent lines strike the loop at different points. Some of the e·levated trains make the ci·rcuit of the loop and then run back again, each over its own line; no·rth-bound and so·uth-bound trains only touch the loop on awo sides and pass o·n.

**Philadelphia.** — The "City of Brotherly Love" lies on the De·laware River and is a port acce·ssible to o·cean steamers. Its most conspi·cuous building is the monume·ntal city hall at the very center of the city. The tall tower of the city hall is sur-mo·unted by a colo·ssal sta·tue of Wi·lliam Penn, the founder of the co·lony of Pennsylva·nia. There are a good many la·ndmarks of colo·nial and revo-lu·tionary times in Philade·lphia, espe·cially Inde-pe·ndence Hall, where the declara·tion of in-depe·ndence was signed. The Unive·rsity of Penn-sylva·nia is lo·cated at Philadelphia.

**Boston.** — The friends of Bo·ston have given the city the rather prete·ntious ni·ckname of the "Hub of the Universe." It i·s in rea·lity fully as impo·rtant in most respe·cts as any other city in America, in spite of the fact that it is not by any means the largest city in the United States. Bo·ston is the ca·pital city of the State of Massachu·setts, an impo·rtant se·aport, the metro·polis of New England, a wealthy and cu·ltured city.

The Muse·um of Fine Arts, the Pu·blic Li·brary (2,000,000 books) and se·veral churches, inclu·ding

the ma·rvelously be·autiful Tri·nity Church, face on Co·pley Square.

There are a number of buildings and places of histo·ric i·nterest i·n and abo·ut the city, recalling colo·nial days and the revolu·tionary pe·riod.

Bo·ston Unive·rsity is in the heart of the city; Ha·rvard Unive·rsity (founded in 1636) is in Ca·mbridge, one of the su·burbs of Bo·ston. The Massachu·setts Institute of Techno·logy, lo·cated in Bo·ston, is one of the very best schools of engine·ering in the country.

**San Francisco.** — When gold was disco·vered in Califo·rnia, in 1848, there were only a tho·usand people living in San Franci·sco. Then people rushed there from e·verywhere to seek their fo·rtune. The city is built on the shore of San Franci·sco Bay. The bay is one of the largest and safest and most be·autiful na·tural ha·rbors on the Paci·fic coast of North America; the e·ntrance to it is called the Golden Gate.

No ra·ilroad of any impo·rtance runs into San Francisco — only a few lo·cal lines come in from the south. The railroads from di·stant points east and north have their te·rminals across the bay, and freight and pa·ssengers are brought over to San Franci·sco on fe·rry-boats.

Chi·natown, the se·ction of the city where the Chine·se live, attra·cts a good deal of atte·ntion from to·urists, with its o·pium dens, temples (or jo·ss-houses), Chine·se the·aters and Chine·se stores.

The leading parks, Su·tro Heights and Golden Gate Park, are unu·sually attra·ctive, and the city as a whole se·ldom fails to make an agre·eable impre·ssion on strangers.

**New Orleans.** — In 1803 New Orleans, along with the surro·unding te·rritory, was sold to the United States by France; the town was ori·ginally co·lonized by Fre·nchmen, but it had belo·nged to Spain for a while, too. A large part of the pre·sent popula·tion of the city, ne·groes included, still understa·nds French. But English is spoken o·rdinarily on the street and with strangers.

In the old French quarter and in some other parts of the city the style of constru·ction of the houses, with inte·rior courts and i·ron-trimmed ba·lconies, as well as the si·dewalks and the pa·vements themse·lves, remi·nds a person of southern France or the West Indies. A good many of the streets have French names. Some of the ce·meteries look more like French or Spanish cemeteries than they do like the ce·meteries of other American cities. The ma·rkets attra·ct a good deal of atte·ntion from vi·sitors to New Orleans from other places in the United States where there are no pu·blic ma·rkets.

The old cathe·dral of Saint Louis, built in colo·nial times, faces Ja·ckson Square. An eque·strian sta·tue of Gen. Andrew Jackson stands in the square. Jackson won the battle of New Orleans

from the British in 1815 at the close of the War of 1812. Later he was ele·cted pre·sident for two terms.

New Orleans was built on the west bank of the Mississi·ppi at a bend in the river; the city is called the "Cre·scent City" for that re·ason. It is the world's greatest co·tton ma·rket and an impo·rtant shipping center. Ocean steamers come up the river from the Gulf of Me·xico. There is no bridge across the Mississi·ppi at New Orleans; ra·ilroad trains are transfe·rred from one side to the other on spe·cially constru·cted fe·rry-boats. A strange thing about New Orleans is that a large part of the city is belo·w the le·vel of the water in the river when the river rises. A big emba·nkment of earth called the le·vee keeps the city from being flooded. A person can stand on the le·vee and a·ctually see that the water in the river is higher on one side than the land on the other.

**Washington.** — In the early hi·story of the United States there was consi·derable ri·valry among the impo·rtant cities of the country as to which should be the na·tional ca·pital. The question was deci·ded by founding an enti·rely new city in a di·strict not belo·nging to any of the states to be the seat of the fe·deral go·vernment. George Wa·shington himse·lf was commi·ssioned to choose the site for it. The tract he picked out was a·fterwards given the name of the Di·strict of Colu·mbia, and the new city was called Wa·shington in his ho·nor. Co·ngress met in

Wa·shington for the first time in 1800. The city was laid out on such a magni·ficent scale, and so few people lived there at first that Wa·shington City was rega·rded as a kind of a pra·ctical joke the go·vernment had played on that part of the country. Tra·velers who had vi·sited the place in the early days refe·rred to it sarca·stically as the "City of Streets without Houses."

Since that time Wa·shington has grown to be a large and impo·rtant city, and the wi·sdom of its founders was comple·tely ju·stified. The only thing to regre·t is that they didn't leave more open space for parks when they planned the city.

Wa·shington is perha·ps the most beautiful city in the United States today. Its streets are unusually broad and well shaded with trees. The streets running east and west are disti·nguished by letters, and the ones running north and south bear numbers. The mono·tony of the city's arra·ngement is broken by a·venues, named after va·rious states of the union, running in irre·gular dire·ctions. There are round, pa·rk-like spots with sta·tues, called circles, at places where three streets interse·ct.

An unusual number of pu·blic buildings and sta·tues ado·rn the city, and hardly any other American city has better muse·um and li·brary faci·lities. There are five rather small unive·rsities lo·cated in the Di·strict of Colu·mbia, two Ca·tholic and three Pro·testant.

Wa·shington City owes its pro·minence to the fact that it is the na·tional ca·pital. Its co·mmerce and i·ndustry are not of much impo·rtance.

The pri·ncipal go·vernment building is the ca·pitol, conta·ining the se·nate chamber, the house of represe·ntatives and the room where the supre·me court holds its se·ssions. The congre·ssional li·brary (nearly 3,000,000 books) stands facing the ca·pitol. The members of co·ngress have pri·vate o·ffices provi·ded for them in two other go·vernment buildings. The pre·sident lives in the "White House," known offi·cially as the Exe·cutive Ma·nsion. Other pu·blic buildings are o·ccupied by the di·fferent go·vernment depa·rtments and their su·bdivisions.

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American cities are nearly always laid out with broad streets crossing each other at right angles. The streets divi·de the city into squares called *blocks*. The blocks are su·bdivided into lots. The lots have houses built on them ge·nerally, but there are a few va·cant lots, too. Corner lots are the best ones. A na·rrow pa·ssage for ve·hicles, called an a·lley, runs thru each block, divi·ding it into two halves. Garages are built on the a·lleys.

In some cities the *streets* run in o·ne dire·ction, and the *a·venues* cross them at right angles. The streets and avenues, inste·ad of names, often bear conse·cutive letters or numbers. That makes it easy for a person to find any street he wants, even in a strange city, without asking a poli·ceman or

a·nyone else. *House numbers* run a hundred to the block, the even numbers on one side of the street and the odd numbers on the other. That way the house number itself shows how far the house stands from the end of the street. Of course, the houses are not numbered conse·cutively; a good many numbers are skipped, for there are never as many as a hundred houses to the block.

The sky·line of large American cities is rema·rkable for its *sky·scrapers,* a·lmost incre·dibly tall buildings shooting up into the air to a height of 30 to 40 stories in some cases and making the streets betwe·en them seem like chasms or ca·nyons inste·ad of open spaces.[1]

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[1] Sky·scrapers are not only higher than other buildings but of an enti·rely new type of constru·ction ori·ginated by American a·rchitects. Their great weight is too much for o·rdinary founda·tions. After e·xcavating deep eno·ugh for se·veral ba·sements with the steam-sho·vel, a number of large round holes like wells scattered over the a·rea to be o·ccupied by the building are sunk still deeper into the earth till they strike be·drock and then are filled with ceme·nt, giving the building a firm founda·tion on the so·lid rock of the earth's crust. The sky·scraper itself is a fra·mework of steel. The stones are put into the walls a·fterwards and have nothing to do with holding up the building; the stones of the upper stories may even be put in place first befo·re the wall belo·w is finished. Re·cent styles of sky·scrapers are of the to·wer-type (tall and na·rrow) or of the py·ramid-type (broad at the bo·ttom, na·rrower at the top). The upper stories of a sky·scraper are reached by a ba·ttery of e·levators. The towers of the tall buildings are illu·minated at night and look like great jewels in the sky.

There are a good many things to see on the streets of a large city. Eno·rmous *signs* with big gilt letters cover the front of every story of some bu·siness blocks. (A building o·ccupied by stores and o·ffices is someti·mes called a block.) There are transpa·rent signs and ena·meled me·tal signs, too, illu·minated at night by ele·ctric light. A pa·wnbroker ge·nerally has three golden balls hanging over the door of his pa·wn-shop. Opti·cians use a big eye or an eno·rmous pair of spe·ctacles for a sign. In front of every ba·rber-shop, there's a pole painted with red, white and blue stripes with a golden ball on top of it.

On the *si·dewalks* ne·wsboys sell their papers; fruit men sell apples, pears, oranges, bana·nas and other kinds of fruit; blind men o·ffer sho·e-laces (or sho·e-strings), co·llar bu·ttons, pe·ncils and other small a·rticles for sale. Ita·lian o·rgan-grinders go from street to street playing more or less po·pular or mono·tonous tunes on their ha·nd-organs. On the bu·siest streets the si·dewalks are swarming with people, and you have to look out when you cross the street not to get run over: there are so many stre·et-cars, busses, trucks, cabs, automo·biles and mo·tor-cycles. Ve·hicles on the pa·vement and the people on the si·dewalks all keep to the right.

Consi·dering the eno·rmous number of streets in the largest cities, no one can be expe·cted to know them all — not even people who were born there and have lived there all their lives. A stranger,

at any rate, should have a good *plan* (or map) of the city and a comple·te street i·ndex. Where the streets and a·venues are disti·nguished by numbers or letters, it's a compa·ratively easy matter for a stranger to find his way.

The name and addre·ss of all ho·useholders and bu·siness people can be found in the *city dire·ctory*. The te·lephone directory gives the street and house number, as well as the te·lephone number, of every te·lephone subscri·ber. Nearly e·verybody of any co·nsequence at all in the city has a te·lephone and a te·lephone dire·ctory, so the te·lephone book is used quite ge·nerally in place of the city dire·ctory for looking up addre·sses. The city dire·ctory is a larger book and rather expe·nsive. Not very many people own a copy of it; it can be consu·lted in the hote·l-o·ffices, dru·gstores and pu·blic li·braries. The first few pages of a city dire·ctory u·sually give consi·derable ge·neral informa·tion about the city that may be of some i·nterest or uti·lity to strangers.

When other informa·tion is needed, a poli·ceman is the best pe·rson to ask for it. His answers are likely to be tru·stworthy and to the point.

## Asking the Way.

| Questions. | Answers. |
| --- | --- |
| Can you dire·ct me (or tell me how to get) to the Art Institute? | Go straight on (or ahe·ad) two blocks; then turn to the left [or right]. |

I beg your pa·rdon; is this the right way to the Na·tional City Bank? Can I get there by keeping on straight down this street till I come to it?

No; you're walking right awa·y from it. The best thing for you to do would be to go back till you come to Wall St. and then ask aga·in.

Excu·se me, what's the nearest way from here to Lee Circle? Does this street go there?

(I'm) sorry I can't tell you. I'm a stranger here myse·lf. You'd better ask a poli·ceman.

Will you please tell me where the nearest branch po·stoffice is around here? How far away is it?

Let me see; you're still about 3 blocks from Sta·tion "D"; it's at least a 5 ·mi·nutes' walk straight ahe·ad.

How long a walk is it from here to Washington Park?

About half an hour, I would say. You'd better take a (street-)car.

Which car should I take for the Cana·l Street Sta·tion? Do all these cars go down that way?

I'm not quite sure which. I don't know much about how the car lines run in this part of town.

Say, condu·ctor, where do I get off for Lo·gan Square? We haven't passed it by any chance alre·ady, have we?

You'll have to get off at the next cross line and tra·nsfer to a Milwa·ukee Avenue car.

Where's the Pu·llman ti·cket-office, please?

The first wi·ndow to your left. You'll see the sign.

When the information you wanted has been given you, you say, "Thank you."

## XXV. The Government.

**The President** and vi·ce-president are both of them ele·cted for a term of four years. The pre·sident has a good deal of autho·rity, much more than the king u·sually has in a constitu·tional

mo·narchy. He has a sa·lary of $75,000 a year and an a·nnual allo·wance of $25,000 for tra·veling expe·nses. The vi·ce-president takes the place of the pre·sident in case a su·bstitute is needed. Ordinarily he acts as presi·ding o·fficer of the se·nate witho·ut a vote exce·pt in case of a tie.

**The Cabinet** is made up of the heads of the go·vernment depa·rtments. The members of the ca·binet are appo·inted by the pre·sident with the appro·val of the se·nate; they are his offi·cial advi·sers and help him in carrying out his po·licies. Their term of se·rvice is ge·nerally the full four years that the administra·tion lasts. They are respo·nsible to the pre·sident for their offi·cial acts, and co·ngress has no power to remo·ve them.

**Congress** meets once a year early in Dece·mber and conti·nues in se·ssion for se·veral months. The upper house of co·ngress is the se·nate. There are two se·nators for each state in the union, ele·cted for a term of six years. The lower house, called the house of represe·ntatives, is compo·sed of 435 represe·ntatives ele·cted for a term of two years. They ele·ct their presi·ding o·fficer, known as the speaker, from among themse·lves. The number of represe·ntatives from each state is in propo·rtion to the popula·tion; so·me states have only one, while others have between 30 and 40. Members of co·ngress are paid $10,000 a year. A bill introdu·ced into co·ngress must be passed by both houses and signed by the pre·sident befo·re

it can become a law. The pre·sident has power to ve·to legisla·tion he may consi·der undesi·rable.

**The National Flag** of the United States (called the "sta·r-spa·ngled banner," also the "stars and stripes") is red, white and blue. It has a blue re·ctangle in the upper le·ft-hand corner, showing 48 white stars (one for each state). The rest of the flag is made up of 13 horizo·ntal stripes, a·lternately red (7) and white (6), represe·nting the ori·ginal 13 states of the union.

**Army and Navy.** — The standing army (the army in time of peace) is li·mited to a small number of men, inclu·ding o·fficers and pri·vates.

The American navy is rather impo·rtant. It includes 18 ba·ttle-ships, all of them named after states of the union, and a good number of other wa·rships: cru·isers, mo·nitors, gu·nboats, torpe·do-boats, (torpe·do-boat) destro·yers, su·bmarines and su·bmarine chasers.

Mi·litary se·rvice is vo·luntary (not compu·lsory). The go·vernment finds it hard to secu·re recru·its in time of peace and even reso·rts to adverti·sing in the ne·wspapers and magazi·nes and on the bi·ll-boards to indu·ce volunte·ers to enli·st in the army and navy. The mi·nimum pay of the enli·sted men in the a·rmy, the mari·ne corps and the na·vy is so·mething like a do·llar a day. In time of war the draft (conscri·ption) is reso·rted to.

**Constitution.** — The 13 "free and indepe·nd-ent states" formed an alli·ance during the War of

Indepe·ndence, but the ce·ntral go·vernment they o·rganized under the articles of confedera·tion had hardly any real autho·rity. A conve·ntion was called by congress in 1787 to revi·se the articles of confedera·tion. But the members, "in order to form a more pe·rfect union," drew up an enti·rely new constitu·tion, inste·ad. The constitu·tion they framed was ra·tified by all the states withi·n a few years, but with consi·derable opposi·tion, and is still in force. The constitu·tion defi·nes the fu·nctions and powers of the fe·deral go·vernment. Most of its pro·visions rega·rding pe·rsonal rights are found in the ame·ndments that have been ado·pted from time to time. The United States supre·me court, the highest court of appe·al, inte·rprets the constitu·tion and someti·mes annu·ls laws passed by co·ngress by decla·ring them unconstitu·tional.

**Jurisdiction.** — The American sy·stem of go·vernment is highly dece·ntralized. Every one of the 48 states in the union is pra·ctially an auto·nomous repu·blic, as far as its inte·rnal affa·irs go (or are conce·rned). The na·tional go·vernment, for i·nstance, has no more right to interfe·re with the pu·blic school sy·stem of any of the states than it has to interfe·re with the schools of Bulga·ria or De·nmark. When a man commi·ts a bu·rglary or steals an auto or forges a check or burns his ne·ighbor's house down, he has vi·olated a state law, and the fe·deral go·vernment has nothing to do with the matter. He is arre·sted and tried in

court and pu·nished by the lo·cal autho·rities under the state law. The fe·deral go·vernment only has charge of matters that conce·rn a·ll the states or at least two· of them. The na·tional go·vernment, of course, has charge of the po·stal se·rvice, immigra·tion, the army and navy, the colle·ction of the cu·stoms duties and the coining of mo·ney. Each state has its own ma·rriage and divo·rce laws and its own comme·rcial laws, but co·mmerce between the states and with fo·reign countries is re·gulated by fe·deral legisla·tion.

**Federal Territory.** — The te·rritories and depe·ndencies of the United States not yet o·rganized and admi·tted into the union as states are su·bject in a·ll things to the autho·rity of the fe·deral go·vernment. None of them can have any lo·cal self-go·vernment unle·ss co·ngress sees fit to a·uthorize the crea·tion of a territo·rial le·gislature. There is no lo·cal le·gislative body ele·cted by the people in the Di·strict of Colu·mbia or in Ala·ska, but co·ngress has provi·ded for le·gislatures in Hawa·ii, the Phi·lippines and Po·rto Ri·co. But even tho the te·rritories and depe·ndencies may have pa·rtial auto·nomy in their lo·cal affa·irs, they can not take part in the na·tional go·vernment until they are admi·tted into the union as states.

**State Government.** — Each state has its own written constitu·tion and a state supre·me court. The go·vernor and other exe·cutive offi·cials are ele·cted by the people. A le·gislature compo·sed

of a se·nate and a house of represe·ntatives makes the laws. Several states have also ado·pted the ini·tiative and refere·ndum, a sy·stem of dire·ct legisla·tion by the people themse·lves, to contro·l and su·pplement the work of the le·gislature.

**The Counties** (called pa·rishes in Louisia·na) are merely conve·nient divi·sions of the states for admi·nistrative pu·rposes. The county o·fficers are ele·cted as a rule by the voters of the county, but they are rega·rded as the a·gents of the state go·vernment to e·xecute the state laws. The board of supervi·sors (or county commi·ssioners) has power to le·vy taxes and to a·uthorize the expe·nditure of the funds of the county for mainta·ining roads and bridges and for the reli·ef and care of the poor. Court is held re·gularly in the co·urt-house at the county-se·at by the county judge; or a ci·rcuit judge may hold court in se·veral di·fferent counties, one at a time. The she·riff, co·roner, reco·rder of deeds, county tre·asurer and superinte·ndent of schools have their o·ffices in the co·urt-house. The counties are su·bdivided into di·stricts called to·wnships, towns, pre·cincts or supervi·sors' di·stricts — the name varies in the different states.

## XXVI. American English.

No two Americans speak the English la·nguage exa·ctly ali·ke. It is not a·lways corre·ct to speak of the "American pronuncia·tion" of such-and-such a word: there are often se·veral di·fferent American

pronuncia·tions. The voca·bulary and phraseo·logy of the la·nguage also vary[1] more or less in di·fferent parts of the country. But the varia·tions in American English in di·fferent parts of the country are no greater than the re·gional varia·tions in di·fferent parts of France or Germany among people speaking the na·tional la·nguage, and not some lo·cal di·alect (pato·is or Mu·ndart). There are no uninte·lligible dia·lects spoken in this country, as there a·re in England and other Euro·pean countries. An American from any part of the United States is able to understa·nd people from any other part of the country without the slightest di·fficulty.

The di·fferences betwe·en American English and British English are no greater than the di·fferences betwe·en American Spanish and Europe·an Spanish. The only Englishmen Americans have any trouble in understa·nding are co·ckneys and une·ducated people speaking country di·alects.

Americans pronounce their *aitches* in stressed (or a·ccented) sy·llables (exce·pt in a few old words of La·tin o·rigin, such as *ho·nest, ho·nor* and *hour*), but they leave them out[2] in u·nstressed (or u·nac-

[1] For instance, it all depe·nds on where a pe·rson was brought up whether he says, "Hurry up" or "Hurry on" or "Make haste." What most Americans call a *porch* is called a *ga·llery* or a *po·rtico* in the southern states, a *piazza* in New England and a *stoop* in the re·gion around New York, while a few people more or less inte·ntionally use the British word *vera·nda.*

[2] Sometimes Americans make fun of Englishmen for dropping their *aitches,* not knowing they do the same thing unco·nscious-

cented) sy·llables. In *pro-hi·b-it,* for i·nstance, the *h* is prono·unced; in *pro-(h)i-bi·-tion* it is si·lent. In the se·ntence, "(H)e (h)ad hi·d (h)is ha·nd under (h)er ha·t," four of the *aitches* are o·rdinarily[1] si·lent.

Nearly all Americans prono·unce orthogra·phic *wh* (in *what, while, etc.*) like *w* in u·nstressed sy·llables and *hw*[2] in stre·ssed syllables, the same as people in the north of England.

Vowels that come next to a na·sal co·nsonant (*m, n, ng*) are slightly na·salized in all English-speaking countries. Ce·rtain o·ther vowels (the ne·utral vowel and the front[3] vowels) are slightly na·salized in a·ll posi·tions in the la·nguage of so·me Americans, whether they come next to a

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ly themse·lves. As a matter of fact, Englishmen sometimes pronounce an *aitch* where no American would: some people in England put in an *aitch* before hea·vy-stre·ssed ini·tial vowels in words where none is written (*a hegg,* for instance, in place of *an egg*), but no·body does tha·t in the United States. The nearest thing we have to tha·t is the archa·ic pronuncia·tion *hit* for the pro·noun *it,* still prese·rved amo·ng une·ducated people in the southern states as a so·uvenir of past ce·nturies.

[1] Of course, the *h* in such words as *he, him, his, her, himse·lf, herse·lf, who* (= *hoo*), *whose* (= *hooz*), *how, has, have* and *had* is pronounced when they are stressed for e·mphasis, or when the speaker's atte·ntion is called to them spe·cially, or when they stand alo·ne, but that is not u·sually the case.

[2] More exa·ctly, a vo·iceless (or devo·calized) *w.*

[3] The front vowels are the ones produ·ced with the tongue shifted fo·rward in the mouth. They are the vowels heard in *meet, mitt, mate, met, mat.*

na·sal co·nsonant or no·t, produ·cing the so·called "na·sal twang." A na·sal co·nsonant following a na·salized vowel in the same sy·llable is li·kely to disappe·ar enti·rely and leave the nasa·lity of the vowel to take its place. Such na·salized vowels also occu·r in Southern Ge·rman and in American Spa·nish; French na·salized vowels are more inte·nsely na·salized.

Such words as *ask*, *half* and *past* are quite ge·nerally prono·unced in New England with the sound of *a* in *father*. In the rest of the country, the sound of *a* in *hat* is used. In the most ty·pical southern pronuncia·tion[1] they have the sound of the *e* in *belt*[2] prolo·nged.

One of the most pecu·liar fe·atures of American pronuncia·tion is the tre·atment of all such words as *fo·reign* and *co·ffee*, prono·unced in England with a short *o*. Two pronuncia·tions are in use in America, o·ne with the *aw* sound in *awful* and the o·ther with the *ah* sound in *father*. Some words are nearly always prono·unced by e·verybody ali·ke either o·ne way or the other, but in the case of o·ther words both pronuncia·tions are in co·mmon use.[3]

[1] Southern pronuncia·tion in ge·neral is not recomme·nded to fo·reigners and is only me·ntioned in this book for the sake of informa·tion.

[2] In the South the same sound is also used in words like *cat* and *man*.

[3] For i·nstance, *po·pular* is always prono·unced *pa·hpular*, never *pa·wpular*; *hog* is almost unive·rsally prono·unced *hawg*, not *hahg*. Other words like *fo·reign* may be prono·unced one

No *y* sound is heard after *d, n, s, t* in words like *dew, duty, new, nude, stu·dent* and *tune*. The re·gular di·phthong *yoo* is heard in other combina·tions, such as *bugle, cube, few, fume, hu·man, mute, puny, use, etc.*

There is a te·ndency to redu·ce all the other di·phthongs in flu·ent speech to a single long vowel[1] ide·ntical with the first vowel of the di·phthong; the *a·e* di·phthong (in *five, white, etc.*), for i·nstance, is re·gularly redu·ced in the southern states to a long *ah* sound about like a Spanish *a*, and there is a te·ndency to do the same thing in other parts of the country. Di·phthongs in such words as *pail, peel, pole* and *pool* only appe·ar in disti·nct and ca·reful pronuncia·tion.

The ne·utral vo·wel (the first sound in *abo·ut, eno·ugh, ima·gine, o'clo·ck*) is used in all English-speaking countries more than any other sound in the la·nguage. It should not be confu·sed with the vowel in *cut, tub, nut, etc.* It occu·rs in most unstre·ssed sy·llables. No fo·reigner can be con-si·dered as having a corre·ct and flu·ent English pronuncia·tion unle·ss he uses the ne·utral vowel in its proper place inste·ad of the disti·nct vowel sugge·sted by the spelling. The ne·utral vowel is used rather more exte·nsively in the United States

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way by o·ne pe·rson and the other way by his own brother or sister. Some Americans drink *ca·hffee* and others prefer *ca·wffee.*

[1] That's the re·ason why *our* often sounds like *are*; the se·cond e·lement of the di·phthong in *our* disappe·ars and leaves the first e·lement alo·ne, an *ah* sound.

than in England.[1] The great majo·rity of Americans, especially in the Middle West and in the Far West, use it even in the u·nstressed sy·llables of such words as *wi·ndow, pota·to, ho·uses, Me·mphis, etc.*, in place of a short unstre·ssed *o* or *i* sound.

The disti·nction between *shall* and *will* as laid down in the gra·mmars and taught in the schools is not ge·nerally obse·rved in the United States. In the la·nguage of most Americans *will* simply i·ndicates fu·ture time, without any spe·cial implica·tion of voli·tion in the first pe·rson unless the *will* is e·mphasized, and *shall*[2] in all three pe·rsons of the fu·ture impli·es obliga·tion or compu·lsion.

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[1] The sta·tement so·metimes made that American pronuncia·tion is more ca·reless and slo·venly than English pronuncia·tion is partly true and partly false. In a good many respe·cts American pronuncia·tion is more disti·nct than British pronuncia·tion and varies less from the written forms of English words. For i·nstance, some Americans prono·unce every letter in the word *towa·rds* — quite a co·ntrast to the way Englishmen from the southern counties cut it down to *to'd*. The third vowel in words like *di·fficulty* and *o·rdinary* is slurred over by Englishmen, but is given se·condary stress and prono·unced disti·nctly by Americans. Most Americans (exce·pt in New England and in the South) always prono·unce the *r* sound where·ver it is written. The archa·ic pronuncia·tion of words ending in *-ment* and *-ent* with the sound of *e* in *cent* — a pronunciation still recomme·nded in nearly all the di·ctionaries — is in co·mmon e·very-day use "down south" (in the southern states). Atte·ntion has been called to the fact that Americans never prono·unce an *h* where none is written, and they nearly all make a di·fference in stressed sy·llables betwe·en orthogra·phic *w* and orthogra·phic *wh*.

[2] In the first pe·rson most Americans only use *shall* in the

The offi·cial name of the American na·tion, the "United States of America" (abbre·viated: U. S. A.), is in most cases shortened to the "United States" (abbre·viated: U. S.) by the go·vernment itse·lf as well as by the pu·blic.[1] The people of the country nearly always call themse·lves "Americans," and they once in a while speak of the country itse·lf as "America," but they never call it "North America" or the "United States of North America," as some fo·reigners are incli·ned to do, and they never call themse·lves "North Americans." English-speaking people in other countries, Americans inclu·ded, often refe·r to the United States fami·liarly as the "States" for short, but that name is not used by people living in the country itse·lf.

A "Ya·nkee" was ori·ginally an inha·bitant of New England. People in the southern states have also used the word and still use it as a slightly disrespe·ctful name for people living a·nywhere in the North. Exce·pt in a few expre·ssions like "Ya·nkee e·nterprise" and "Ya·nkee ingenu·ity," Americans themse·lves hardly ever use the word "Ya·nkee" as applying to the enti·re American people, but Englishmen and other fo·reigners use it a·lways in tha·t sense.

interro·gative form. They never say, "I shall go." But they do· say, "Shall I go?" meaning, "Do you wa·nt me to go?" or "Do you think I'd better go?"

[1] In reading alo·ud these abbrevia·tions can be prono·unced *yoo ess ay* and *yoo ess* or else read out in full. In conversa·tion the full form is used nearly always.

# INDEX.

*The figures refer to the pages.*


academic year 75
academy 70-71, 79
accident 55-56, 146
A. D. 97
addition 88-89
advertisements 88
age 63, 122-123
agents 83, 137
airliner 157-159
airmail 133
airplane 155-159
airship 155
airway 157-158
aitches 191-192
Alaska 163, 189
alcohol 40
All Fools' Day 125
almanac 100
a. m. 23
American plan 35
amusements 104, 113-117, 121-122
ancestry 62-63
animals 108, 110, 120-121
apartment 29, 34
apothecaries' weight 94
Arbor Day 126
area (U. S.) 163
arithmetic 70, 88-90
arm 52
army 187
art galleries 113, 175, 176
asking the way 184-185
athletics 78, 119
autobusses 151, 161
automatic machine 85
automobiles 162
aviation 155-159
avoirdupois weight 93-94

bachelor 32, 64, 73, 75
baggage 137, 149-150
baggage transfer 162
bakery 11, 21
balloon 154-155
bandits 137
banknotes 92-93
bar 41
barber-shop 10, 51, 183
barometer 106
baseball 117-118
basket-ball 118
bath 42, 102, 175
bathroom 27-28, 29, 42
B. C. 97
beard 42-43, 51
bedroom 29, 31-32
beer 40, 41
bell 5, 26, 145
bicycle 162
bills 92-93
birds 109-110, 120
birthday 98, 122, 124, 125
biscuits 20-21
block 183, 184
boarding-house 33
body 49-53
book 13, 82
bookstore 13
boot 12, 44
bootleggers 40
boroughs 174
Boston 176-177
boxing 120
bread 20-21, 36, 37, 108
breakfast 19-21
bride 66
bridges 160, 174
Brooklyn 174
buffalo 120
building trades 84
burial 67-68
business college 80
business men 82
busses 151, 161-162
butter 20, 22, 37, 38

cab 145, 162-163
cabaret 114
cabinet 186
cable-cars 161
cablegram 139
cafeteria 37
calendar 98
California 105, 177
calls 5-8
campus 74
Canada 93, 163, 170-171
Canadian money 93
Canadians 170-171
canals 165-166
candy 10, 11
cane 5, 48
canvassers 83
capitalist 80-81
capitol 181
car 143-148, 160-161 162-163
card games 122
carnival 125
catalog 14
cellar 27, 112-113
Celts 169
cent 91, 92
century 96
cereal foods 19
chain-restaurants 39
chain-stores 15
chair-cars 145
charlatan 57
check 36, 37, 86, 149-150
Chicago 175-176
child labor 87
Chinese 38-39, 153, 171, 177-178
chop suey 38
Christmas 128-129
churches 128, 129, 174-175, 176-177, 178
cigars 41, 154
circus 116
cities 172-184
Civil War 124, 168
climate 104-105
clock 13, 27, 99, 140
clothing 12, 42-47
clubs 33
coat 45, 46, 47
coeducation 70
coffee 22, 36, 194
coins 92
collar 43, 47
college 71-80
college spirit 77-78
colonies 105, 163, 189
Columbus 127
commencement 75
commons 76
common schools 70
concerts 114
conductor 151
congress 91, 179, 186-187

constitution 39, 187-188, 189
consumption 56
contagious diseases 56-57
corn 111-112
corn bread 21
corn cakes 20
corporation 15, 81
country life 107-113
county 190
course of studies 70-71, 75
court 188, 189, 190
cousins 63
crackers 20
cremation 68
creole 11, 62
cubic measure 95
curriculum 75
customs 154

dairy lunch 38
dancing 116-117
date 25, 91, 98
day 96-97, 122-129
day-laborers 87
dead letters 132
deaf 50, 53
death 67-68
debate 77
decimal system 91
Decoration Day 126
degree 73, 74
delicatessen 11
delivery of mail 130, 132, 133, 136
department-stores 14
depot 150-151
desserts 22, 36
dialects 115, 170, 191
dinner 6, 19, 21-23, 128, 129
diphthongs 194
diploma 73, 75
directory 184
dirigibles 155
diseases 53-57
District of Columbia 133, 179-180, 189
district school 69-70
division 89-90
divorce 64
doctor 41, 55-56, 57, 72, 94
dollar 91-92
door 5, 26
dormitories 76
dowry 66-67
drama 114, 115
dress 42-47
drinks 13, 22, 36, 39-41, 114
drugs 56, 94
drugstores 13, 41, 94
dry-goods 12
dry measure 95-96
drys 40
dry season 105
due stamps 134

ear 50-51
East and West 166
Easter 125-126
eating 36-39
eclipse 97, 98
education 68-80
eggs 19-20, 38, 102, 109, 125
electives 75-76
electric inventions 28, 48, 83, 143
elementary schools 68-70
elevated railroad 160, 174, 175-176
elevator 34, 182
employees 82
employment agencies 88
endowment 78-79
engagement 65, 66
entertainments 113-117
envelope 34, 131, 132, 134
epidemics 56-57
Episcopal 174-175
epitaph 68
etiquette 5-9, 23-25, 58-60, 65-67, 116-117
European plan 34-35
examination 72, 74
express companies 136-138, 146
express-trains 146
express-wagons 162
eye 48, 49-50
eye-glasses 48

face 49
factory hands 86, 87
faculties 71-72
fall 103-104
family 60-68
farming 108, 110-113
Far West 166
federal govt. 185-189
fellow 75
ferries 159-160, 177, 179
figures 25, 88
fireplace 28-29
fish 19, 21, 164
five-and-ten-cent stores 13
flags 152-153, 187
flat 29
flowers 30, 109 110
folder 149
food 19-22, 36-38, 108
football 118-119
foreign money 92-93
Fourth of July 126
fractions 90
France 62, 91, 94, 173, 178
Franklin 60, 103
fraternities 77
freezing 104, 105, 106
freight 137, 165
freight-train 145, 147
French 11, 178, 193
French Canadians 170
freshmen 76
front yard 109
frost 105
fruit 19, 21, 103, 105, 109, 137
funeral 67-68
furnished room 32
furnishing goods 12
furniture 12-13, 30-31, 66
furs 47

game (wild) 104, 110
games (to play) 117-119, 122
garden 109
gas 28, 154-155
gatekeeper 151
general delivery 132
glasses 48
glider 156
gloves 16, 17, 44, 47, 120
gold coin 91, 92, 93
gold (in Cal.) 177
golf 119
Good Friday 125
government 185-190
graded schools 69-70
graduate school 72-73
grain 38, 94, 111
grammar schools 69
grand opera 114, 175
grave 68
Great Lakes 164-165, 168, 175
greenbacks 92, 93
Greek letter fraternities 77-78
greeting 5, 16
grocery 11
Guam 105, 163
gyroplane 156-157

h (sound of) 191-192
hair 43, 47, 49
hall 26
Hallowe'en 127
hand-baggage 150

hands 52
hardware 12
harvest 111
hat 7, 9, 10, 12, 37, 44, 47
Hawaii 105, 163, 189
haymaking 110
head 49-51
head tax 153
heating 28, 35
high school 70-71, 73
hobby 121-122
holidays 124-129
Holy Week 125
home-brew 40
honeymoon 66
hospital 57
hotcakes 20
hotel 33-35
hour 23, 97, 99-101
house 25-32, 107-108
house of representatives 186, 190
house numbers 25, 182
hunting 120-121

ice-cream 13, 22, 41
immigration 153-154, 169-170
Independence Day 126
Indians 166, 172
instruction 74, 80
insured mail 133
introduction 7, 116
invitation 6, 23
Irish 112, 169
islands 105, 163, 189

Jackson 97, 178
Japanese 12, 39
Jesus 125, 128
jewelry 13, 48, 66
job 87, 88
jobbers 10, 83
July 4th 126
juniors 76
jurisdiction 188-189

kitchen 27, 29, 34, 36
knocker 26

laboratory 74, 91
Labor Day 127
lakes 164-165, 175
laundry 47-48
lawn-tennis 119
leap-year 96
leave-taking 8
lectures 74
legislature 189-190
legs 52
Lent 125
letter 8, 130-135, 137
letter-carrier 129-130
letter of introduction 8
letter postage 135
levee 179
Liberty statue 173
libraries 74, 113, 123, 175, 176, 180, 181
license 41, 65, 83
light 28, 35, 97, 143, 144
lightning 102-103
limbs 52
Lincoln 97, 124
liquid measure 95
liquor 40-41
literary societies 77
locomotive 145-146
long measure 95
loop district 175-176
lot 83, 181
lotteries 121
Louisiana 62, 190
lunch 13, 23, 38
lunch-counter 37

machine 84, 85, 86, 87, 110, 111, 112, 140, 143
maiden name 61
mail 129-137
mail-order house 14-15
mantelpiece 28, 30
manufacturing 80-81, 84-86
map 184
Marconi 137
Mardi Gras 125
markets 11, 178
marriage 64-67
matriculation 73
meals 19-25, 36-39
measures 91, 95-96
meat 11, 19-21, 36, 38
meat-market 11
medicines 13, 56, 94
Memorial Day 126
merchant 10-11, 82
merchant marine 168
Mexican money 93
military academy 79
millinery 10, 47
millionaires 81
minister 81
minstrel show 115
mister 72, 131
mistletoe 129
money 45, 91-93, 137, 139
money-changer 93
money-order 137
months 96
monument 68
moon 97
mother-in-law 63
motor-cars 162-163
mountains 163
mourning 64
mouth 50
movies 114
muffins 21
multiplication 89
museums 113, 175, 176, 180
music 114-116

name (persons) 61
name (of U. S.) 196
nasality 192-193
national parks 121
naval academy 79
navy 187
near-beer 40
neck 51
negroes 115, 124, 172-173, 178
neighborhood 26, 107
neutral vowel 192, 194-195
New England 168, 176
New Orleans 125, 164, 178-179
newspapers 88, 106, 123, 136, 140
newspaper wrappers 134
New Year 124, 129
New York 173-175
Niagara Falls 165
nickel 17, 92
normal schools 80
North Americans 196
North and South 167-168
nose 50
numbers 25, 88, 182

oldest cities 167
old maid 64
opera 114, 175
orphan 63
outing 103

packages 128-129, 133, 135-137, 150
Panama Canal 163, 166
pancakes 20
pants 42, 45, 46
paper money 92
parcel post 135
parishes 190
parks 123, 175, 178
parlor 31
party 6-7
passenger-train 143-145

peddlers 83
Penn 176
Pennsylvania 62, 170, 176
Pennsylvania Dutch 11, 62, 170
periodicals 13, 88, 136
pharmacy 13, 57, 94
Philadelphia 176
Philippine Islands 105, 163, 189
physical defects 53
physician 41, 57, 68, 72, 91, 94
pilot 145, 152
plan 34-35, 184
plantation 63, 167
playing-cards 122
p. m. 23
population 169, 170, 172
port 152, 173, 176
Porto Rico 105, 163, 189
position 88
postage due 139
postage-rates 133-136
postage-stamps 13, 122, 131, 134, 137
postal cards 134-135
postman 130
potatoes 20, 21-22, 109, 112
preacher 81
prescription 41, 57, 94
president 185-186
primary schools 68-70
printed matter 136
printing trades 84
private schools 70, 78, 79
professional men 81-82
prohibition 39-41
prompter 116
pronunciation 190-195

quack 57
quiz 74

radio 104, 116, 142
radiophone 142
railroad 143-151, 177
railway 160
rainy season 105
rates of postage 133-136
razor 42-43
recreation 108, 113-122
refreshments 6, 13, 41, 117
registered mail 133, 137-138
relations 63-64
relatives 63-64
relishes 21
remittances 137-138
renting 32-33
reply card 135
reply coupon 133-134
representatives 181, 186, 190
reservations 158, 172
restaurant 36
retailers 10, 82
return-card 132
revolution 62, 171, 177
rich 80-81
ring 65, 66
rivers 102, 164, 174, 176, 179
rolls 21
rooms 26-36
round trip 148
rubbers 44
rush hours 161

safety-razor 43
Saint Augustine 167
salad 22
salesmen 82-83
saloon 41
salutation 5, 8, 131
San Francisco 177-178
Santa Claus 128
Santa Fe 167
Saturday 70, 97, 123-124
scab 87
scholar 74-75
schools 68-70
seaplane 156
seasickness 153
seasons 101-105
senate 181, 186, 190
seniors 76
senses 49-50, 52-53
servants 9, 62
shall and will 195-196
shaving 42-43, 51
shipping 168, 179
shock 111, 112
shoes 44, 47
shops 10, 85, 88
shutters 30
sidewalks 183
signs 183, 185
silver coins 92
sir 9
situation 88
skating 104, 120
skeleton 52
skyscraper 173, 182
slavery 124, 167
sleeping-car 144, 145
smallpox 56
snow 104, 105, 164
soda-fountain 13, 41
soldiers 187
sophomores 76
sororities 77-78
soup 21
southern states 20-21, 22, 31, 124, 167-168
Southwest 166-167
Spain 135, 166-167, 178
Spanish 8, 11, 70, 167, 178, 191, 193
speak-easies 40-41
special delivery 133, 136
spectacles 48
sports 78, 104, 117-121
spring 102, 105
square measure 95
stage-coach 143
stamped envelopes 134
stamps 122, 131, 133-134, 136
Standard time 100
state govt. 188-190
station 150-151
stationery 13, 130
steamers 143, 151-153, 176, 179
stepmother 64
stores 10-18, 93
stories 26, 34, 182, 183
stoves 28
streets 174, 180, 181-184
street-cars 160-161
strike 87
students 70-78, 83
subtraction 89
subway 159
summer 102-103
Sunday 70, 97, 123
supper 19, 22-23
supreme court 181, 188, 189
suspenders 46
sweet potatoes 22, 109
swimming 102, 121

table d'hôte 38
table phrases 24-25
tailor 46, 84
talkies 114
taxicab 162-163
teachers' colleges 80
teeth 43, 50, 55
telegraph 138-140
telephone 6, 27, 140-141
telephoto 139
teletypesetter 140
television 143
tennis 119

territories 189
Thanksgiving 127-128
theaters 114-116
thermometer 105-106
thrashing 111
throat 51
thunder-storm 102-103
ticket 115, 125, 147-149, 151
ticket-office 148, 185
time 96-101
time of day 98-101
tips 39
titles 72-73, 81, 131
toast 20
tobacco 15, 41, 154
toilet 27-28, 42-43, 144
tombstone 68
townships 190
track (R. R.) 146, 160, 161
track athletics 78, 119
trade 83-85
trade-schools 80
trade-unions 86-87
trains 144-148, 150, 151, 160
transfer 161, 185
traveling 103, 143-159
trees 102, 103, 128, 180
tropical climate 105
troy weight 94
trunk 16, 51-52, 150
tuberculosis 56
tuition 69

umbrella 48
unemployment 87-88
Union (university) 77
union (U. S.) 187, 188, 189
union label 86
union (labor) 86-87
United States 196
university 71-79, 175, 176, 177, 180

vacation 75, 77, 83, 103, 128, 129
vaccination 56-57
Valentine's Day 124-125
vegetables 21-22, 38, 109, 112-113
vegetarians 38
vehicles 183
ventilation 30, 36
vice-president 186
Virgin Islands 105, 163
visits 5-8, 26

w and wh 192, 195
wages 82-84
waist 46
waiting-room 150-151
want ads 88
wardrobe 45
wars 62, 124, 125, 126, 168, 171, 177, 179, 187
warships 187
washing 43, 47-48
Washington, D. C. 133, 179-181
Washington (George) 62, 97, 125, 179
wash-stand 31
watch 13, 48, 84-85, 99
weather 102-107
wedding 60, 65-66
week 96
weights 91, 93-94
Welsbach light 28
West 166
West Point 79
wets 40
wheat 19, 20, 102, 111
whiskers 51
whisky 40
White House 181
wholesalers 10, 15, 82
will (at death) 67, 69
will and shall 195
windows 30
winter 104, 113
wireless 141-142
woman's dress 46-47
women in industry 87
writing paper 34, 130, 131

Yankee 143, 168, 196
yard 32, 95, 104-105
year 75, 76, 96
Yellowstone 121

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Die neueren Sprachen. VII. Band: Der Name Plattner auf dem Titelblatt eines Buches aus dem Gebiete der französischen Grammatik genügt, um uns von vornherein zu überzeugen, daß wir in dem Werke, das ihn trägt, sorgfältige und auf eigene Beobachtungen gegründete Forschungen vor uns sehen. In der Tat hat mir die Prüfung der neuen Grammatik aufrichtige Freude bereitet. Hier finden wir Tatsachen verzeichnet, denen wir vielleicht oft genug in den Denkmälern der Sprache, noch nie aber in einer Grammatik begegnet sind. Großen Reiz zieht das Buch ferner aus dem Umstande, daß es, zum wesentlichen Unterschied von Veröffentlichungen ähnlicher Art, in ausgedehntem Maße auf die zwanglose Sprech- und Drucksprache der gebildeten Franzosen unserer Tage Bezug nimmt.

Krit. Jahresbericht über die Fortschritte der Roman. Philologie: Ich beschränke mich darauf, hier nur auf das treffliche Werk hinzuweisen. Jeder Neuphilologe muß es gründlich studieren, und jeder wird aus dem an wissenschaftlich verarbeitetem Stoffe so überaus reichen Buche eine Fülle von Belehrung schöpfen. Es ist ein Nachschlagewerk ersten Ranges, das auf alle in der französischen Grammatik auftretenden Fragen eine ebenso kurze, als klare und erschöpfende Auskunft gibt.

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Mittelschule: Die Verfasser haben mit feinem Verständnis ihre Grundsätze auf die Eigentümlichkeiten der englischen Sprache anzuwenden verstanden. Schon in der Stoffauswahl verfolgen sie eigene Wege. Die Bücher sind für ihren Zweck vorzüglich bearbeitet. Sie bringen den für das tägliche Leben notwendigen Wortschatz, gewöhnen von Anfang an den Schüler an das Verstehen und Sprechen der Fremdsprache und beschränken die Grammatik auf das unbedingt Notwendige.


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Zu welchem Lehrmittel soll er also greifen? Ein Aufenthalt im Ausland ist kostspielig, und es kommt nicht viel dabei heraus ohne systematisches Studium. Nun findet man eine

stattliche Reihe von Hilfsmitteln für den Selbstunterricht. Neben tüchtigen größeren Selbstbelehrungsmethoden, die an Leistungskraft und Ausdauer übertriebene Anforderungen stellen, gibt es solche, die auf die Unerfahrenheit des Publikums spekulieren. Eine Prüfung lehrt, daß der großartige Erfolg — in einigen Wochen die Fremdsprache „perfekt" sprechen zu können! — nur in der Einbildung besteht. Das Grundübel, an welchem die meisten Systeme kranken, besteht einerseits in dem Zuviel, andererseits in dem Zuwenig. Das Zuviel betrifft die grammatischen und Uebersetzungsübungen sowie das für die Praxis unverwendbare Sprachmaterial, das Zuwenig das Sprechen über Stoffe des täglichen Lebens, also das tatsächlich Benötigte. Das, was der Sprachbeflissene wirklich braucht, sicheres Verstehen, Sprechen und Schreiben der Umgangssprache unter Gebildeten, wird er nur da erlernen, wo nach einem reiflich erwogenen Operationsplane gelehrt wird. Ein solcher hat sämtliche Gedankenkreise, soweit sie den Verkehr mit Ausländern von allgemeiner Bildung in Betracht kommen, zu behandeln. Diesen Grundsätzen wird die Methode Haeusser allseitig gerecht durch Frage und Antwort, durch fortwährende Uebung des Ohrs und der Zunge.

Das Aussprachesystem ist von größter Einfachheit: Schriftzeichen unseres Alphabets nebst praktischen Anweisungen zur Hervorbringung der Sprachseinheiten und vom Deutschen abweichenden Laute. Bei Beachtung der Erläuterungen wird der Lernende sich eine tadellose, echt nationale Aussprache aneignen können.

Den Dialogen liegt ein fremdsprachlicher Text zugrunde; schon nach einigen Uebungsstunden werden eigens für den Zweck verfaßte zusammenhängende Aufsätze über Familie, Haus, Dorf, Zeit und Zahl, Wetter, Schule, Militär, Eisenbahn, Post, Musik und Theater, Zeitungen, kurz über alle Sprachkreise des täglichen Lebens systematisch dialogisiert. Nach Durcharbeitung der Briefe kann der Lernende mit Leichtigkeit über alles sprechen und schreiben. Gerade das geläufige Sprechen und das richtige Schreiben über alle Verhältnisse des Lebens wird mit Sicherheit erreicht. Das Korrespondieren wird in höchst einfacher Weise gepflegt. Leser, die eine Reise ins Ausland planen, finden eine Fülle praktischer Winke über Land und Leute, Sitten und Verhaltungsmaßregeln.

Die Kenntnis der Grammatik wird nicht vernachlässigt. Gemeinfaßlichkeit, Kürze, erst das Beispiel, dann die Regel, übersichtliche Zusammenfassung verwandter Spracherscheinungen. Nur von Zeit zu Zeit ein kleines Stück Grammatik.

Verglichen mit anderen Systemen, beansprucht die Methode Haeusser den Vorzug des kürzesten Weges zur Erlernung einer Sprache; Auswendiglernen langer Vokabelreihen, Uebersetzen, lästige schriftliche Uebungen — alles fällt hier weg; nur stets leichter werdende Wiederholungen in Gesprächen, immer Sprechen, immer Hören! Das Lernen ist hier keine Plage, sondern eine Lust.

Die Methode Haeusser gilt daher nach übereinstimmendem Urteil von hervorragenden Autoritäten auf sprachwissenschaftlichem Gebiet, Lehrern, Offizieren, Beamten, Kaufleuten, Privaten als die praktischste aller Selbstunterrichtsmethoden.

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Es galt daher, dem Praktiker ein Werk an die Hand zu geben, das rasch aufgeschlagen werden kann, sofort den typischen Brief in verschiedenen Varianten und in den idiomatisch richtigen, gebräuchlichen Wendungen bietet und zugleich den geübten Korrespondenten den fehlenden Ausdruck in zugehöriger Verbindung wie den ungeübten seinen ganzen Brief mühelos finden läßt.

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